Women in Britain

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INTRODUCTION

IN BRITAIN,[1] the full participation of women in industry, in the professions and in all kinds of public administration is today accepted as a normal feature of the national way of life. The position of women at the beginning of the nineteenth century was vastly different; then they were hedged about with more legal, economic and social restrictions than ever before in history. The industrial revolution and the changes resulting from it had swept away many of their traditional activities, leaving the wealthy with unlimited leisure and limited interests and the poor to long hours of drudgery in their homes and in their work. Almost the only paid occupations open to an educated woman of inadequate means at that period were those of governess or 'companion', while the women drawn into the new textile mills, factories and workshops were almost always used only in the least-skilled and lowest-paid grades of work.

The transformation that has taken place in the status of women from that time to this has been due partly to women themselves, for there were then, as now, exceptional women whose gifts and personalities were sufficiently formidable to make an impression upon an uninterested world. There were, for example, the writers—novelists such as Jane Austen, the Brontë sisters, George Eliot and Mrs Gaskell; the poet Elizabeth Barrett Browning; and such women as Mary Wollstonecraft and Mrs Henry Reid, both of whom wrote on the rights of women, and Harriet Martineau, one of the first women writers on economics. There were the humanitarians—Elizabeth Fry, pioneer of prison reform; Mary Carpenter, the champion of the vagrant, neglected or delinquent child; and Louise Twining, who campaigned with some success for better treatment of old people in workhouses. There were women who fought for better industrial conditions for their sex—Emma Paterson, who in 1874 founded the Women's Trade Union League, which did much useful work in the period before women were admitted to the established trade unions on the same basis as men; and Beatrice Webb, who was largely instrumental in the setting up of trade boards to regulate wages and conditions in the unorganised industries in which many women were employed. There were the educationists—Miss Buss, headmistress of the North London Collegiate School (founded 1850); Miss Beale, headmistress of Cheltenham Ladies' College (founded 1853); Miss Emily Davies, whose efforts resulted in the founding of Girton College, Cambridge, in 1869; and Miss Clough, first Principal of Newnham College, Cambridge (founded 1875). There were the first women doctors—Dr Elizabeth Blackwell, who was obliged to qualify in the United States of America, and her successors, Dr Elizabeth Garrett Anderson and Dr Sophia Jex Blake, who carried on the struggle to gain admission for women to the medical profession, which was finally granted in 1876. There were also the women whose work resulted in the development of professions to which women were especially well suited—

[1] In this pamphlet the terms Britain and the United Kingdom are used synonymously to mean England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Great Britain includes only England, Wales and Scotland.

examples of such women are Octavia Hill, the initiator of a system of housing management which is still in use, and Florence Nightingale, the founder of modern nursing methods.

These women and others like them led the way. By their insistence on women's diverse capabilities, they undermined a strongly held conviction that women could be of little service outside the home; by their actions they proved that, given the opportunity, women could do useful and effective work in the world at large. Circumstances strengthened their case. After the Crimean War broke out (in 1854), women began to work in spheres hitherto exclusive to men—in military hospitals overseas and in the larger retail shops at home. The invention of the telephone and the typewriter provided more occupations for them and during the last decade of the nineteenth century women found their way into commercial offices in increasing numbers. The civil service followed the business lead and began to employ women typists in 1888. There had been women telephone operators in the service since the Controller of the Post Office had taken over the telegraph system in 1870. The first woman to be appointed to a higher post in the civil service was a woman inspector of workhouse schools, who received her appointment in 1873.

As education and training for employment increased, there came a demand for representation in Parliament. The first regular suffrage committee was set up in 1855 with Barbara Leigh Smith as secretary, and from the 1860s until the outbreak of the first world war, bands of women—led by Dame Millicent Fawcett and her colleagues as well as by 'militant' suffragettes such as Mrs Emmeline Pankhurst and her daughter Christabel—worked steadily for the enfranchisement of their sex, eventually achieved in two Acts—the Representation of the People Act 1918, which gave women over the age of 30 the right to vote, and the Parliament (Qualification of Women) Act 1918, which gave women the right to be elected as members of the House of Commons. In 1928 the minimum voting age for women was lowered to 21 (the same age as for men).

The first world war gave women much wider opportunities to exercise their abilities. The gaps left by men who joined the armed forces were filled by women, many of whom were doing work which was completely new to them. The number of women at work increased by nearly a quarter. The greatest number were employed in industry, and of half a million who entered the metal trade some 90 per cent were engaged in work normally done by men. Women were also employed in public transport and in other public services, in professional and semi-professional occupations, in the civil service (in 1914 there were 600 women civil servants—by 1919 there were nearly 170,000, many of them in posts where they were interchangeable with men), in the police forces, in the Women's Land Army, and in the Women's Auxiliary Services which were formed in connection with the navy, the army and the air force, bringing women for the first time into the military organisation of war.

Women's contribution to the war effort between 1914 and 1918 brought about a change in public opinion, which manifested itself in a variety of ways. After the war many women left industrial employment, but the practice of adapting machinery and working methods to their different skills remained,

and the consequent technical developments led to an expansion in factory employment, particularly in the light metal industries, during the inter-war years. The right of entry to most professions was formally granted to women by the Sex Disqualification (Removal) Act 1919; and from then on it became increasingly a matter of course (and not of debate) that girls should be properly educated and trained for employment, either in one of the professions in which there were already large numbers of educated women—nursing, teaching and secretarial work; or in one of the old-established professions newly opened to women; or in one of the professions (advertising, broadcasting, institutional management and a number of auxiliary medical services) that developed during the years between the wars. In public life it became normal for women to take a share of the responsibility. An Act of 1907 had confirmed the right of women to be elected as county or borough councillors and in 1908 a woman mayor was appointed for the first time. Since 1919, when Lady Astor took her seat, there have always been women in the House of Commons, some of whom have reached ministerial rank—the first being Miss Margaret Bondfield, Minister of Labour (and a member of the Cabinet) in 1929, when she also became the first woman Privy Councillor.

Perhaps the most important advancement of women's public rights in recent years has been the equal pay legislation of 1970 which contains measures to end sex discrimination in all terms and conditions of employment by the end of 1975 (see p. 7).

The change in attitudes towards the role of women in the world outside the home that has been a feature of the past hundred years and which has been towards equality of treatment, opportunity and respect has been paralleled by changes in the personal relationships between men and women. This change is less susceptible of illustration than the increasing role of women in public affairs but evidence is to hand in the introduction of successive pieces of legislation to remove the remaining legal disparities between men and women in private matters, and in the growing public interest in such questions as married women's rights, family planning and abortion, and the care of children under school age, expressed in the activities of women's organisations and in broadcasts and publications.

POPULATION STRUCTURE

THERE ARE about 28·6 million women and girls in Britain—some 1·5 million more than the number of men and boys. Fewer girls are born—total births of boys exceed those of girls by six per cent—but stillbirth rates and mortality rates at all ages are lower for females, so that, since records began, women in Britain have preponderated among the elderly and have outnumbered men in the total population: there are about 106 females to every 100 males. Formerly, women outnumbered men in every age group from adolescence onwards, but recently the fall in stillbirths and infant mortality has helped to raise the age at which women begin to outnumber men to its present mark of 45 years of age.

The expectation of life (in England and Wales) for a girl born in 1966–68 is 74·9 years, compared with 52 years for a girl born in 1900–02; for a boy it is 68·7 years, compared with 48 years. The lengthening of the expectation of life, which has been rather more marked for women than for men, has increased the preponderance of women among the elderly—throughout Britain women comprise about 65 per cent of people aged 70 and over.

SEX AND AGE STRUCTURE OF THE POPULATION: BRITAIN
millions

	1901 Census enumerated		1970 Mid-year estimates		1981 Projections	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
Under 15 years	6·2	6·2	6·5	6·9	6·8	7·2
15–29 years	5·6	5·2	5·8	5·9	6·4	6·6
30–44 years	3·9	3·6	4·9	5·1	5·5	5·6
45–59 years	2·4	2·2	5·3	5·0	4·8	4·8
60 years and over	1·6	1·3	6·1	4·2	6·6	4·6
Totals	19·7	18·5	28·6	27·1	30·1	28·8

In Great Britain nearly two-thirds of the women over the age of 15 are married and a further seventh are widows or have been divorced and have not remarried. Throughout the century the proportion of the population who are married has been rising, mainly as a result of an increase in marriage rates among men and women in their late teens and early twenties: in Great Britain, whereas in 1911 only 24 per cent of young women aged 20 to 24 were married, in 1968 about 57 per cent of them were. More than three-quarters of the women and girls marrying each year in Great Britain are under the age of 25 years, the average age of marriage for spinsters being nearly 23 years (compared with nearly 25 years for bachelors). The marriage

rate in Britain as a whole was 16·7 per 1,000 in 1968. In England and Wales there were four decrees of divorce made absolute for every 1,000 married couples in 1969.

The average number of live children born to couples married just over 100 years ago was rather more than six; a decline seems to have set in with those married in the 1860s, and the average family size for Great Britain fell to less than 2·1 for those married in the decade 1934–43. There has since been some increase, the average family size of people marrying in 1953 having risen to a little over 2·2 after 15 years of marriage. Of the live births in Britain in 1969, illegitimate children comprised 8·3 per cent, compared with 4·3 per cent at the turn of the century.

CIVIL RIGHTS AND DUTIES

POLITICAL AND CAREER RIGHTS

In the political field, women in Britain have almost complete equality of status with men: Britain has acceded to the United Nations Convention on the Political Rights of Women. Women have the same right as men to vote in national and local government elections (like men, they acquire this right at the age of 18), to be elected to the House of Commons or to local councils, to hold office as a Minister of the Crown or mayor, provost or chairman of a local council, and to sit, if eligible, in the House of Lords. They can also be called, subject to the same qualifications as for men, for jury service (but see p. 24).

In their careers, women have the same right of entry as men to practically all public offices, administrative posts and professions: the exceptions include certain offices primarily of a ceremonial nature, the London Stock Exchange, the priesthoods of the Anglican, Roman Catholic and certain Presbyterian ministries, and (for married women) the Diplomatic Service (although women who marry during their service careers may, in exceptional circumstances, be permitted to remain). A number of obstacles, however, tend to stand in the way of women's careers—for example, interruptions (or the possibility of interruptions) because of marriage or the raising of a family, and traditional social attitudes against complete equality of status at work for men and women.

The principle of equal pay already applies in a number of types of employment, and legislation passed in 1970 will prevent discrimination between men and women in terms and conditions of employment after 1975 (see p. 7).

FINANCIAL PROVISIONS

Every person in Britain, regardless of sex or marital status, has the right to own property and to use and dispose of it as he or she chooses, subject to the overriding interests of the community at large. Calculations made by the Board of Inland Revenue[1] give a rough idea of the relative wealth of men and women in Great Britain during 1969, and indicate that women owned some £33,752 million out of the £91,434 million which represented the total net wealth of individuals. The following table contains estimates of some of the types of property holdings of men and women:

£ *million*	1969	
	Men	Women
Government and municipal securities	949	1,280
National savings certificates and premium bonds	909	1,170
Shares and deposits in building societies	3,062	3,003
Quoted stocks and shares (including unit trusts)	8,920	10,043
British unquoted shares	2,282	800
Life insurance	13,867	1,611
Trade businesses and professional assets	2,291	308
Household goods, pictures, china, etc.	2,306	969
Landed property (net of mortgage)	15,210	8,623

[1]The figures in this section are only approximate and have been obtained by applying mortality rates to the statistics of estates on which duty was paid or for which grants of representation were issued in the financial years ending three months later.

Equal Pay

The Equal Pay Act 1970 is a measure intended to eliminate by the end of 1975 discrimination between men and women in Great Britain contained in terms and conditions of employment.[1] According to the provisions of the Act, where men and women do the same or broadly similar work for the same or related employer, or where they do different jobs recognised by job evaluation schemes as equivalent, women will qualify for equal pay. The Act also removes the effects of any obvious discrimination there may have been in the actual process of job evaluation. Where terms and conditions of employment are laid down in collective agreements, statutory wage orders or employers' pay structures, rates of pay applying specifically to men only or to women only must be eliminated, if necessary by declarations of the Industrial Court: the court may declare that men's and women's rates attaching to any single class of work are to be made the same and that any rate applying specifically to women should be raised to the level of the lowest men's rate in the agreement. Under the Equal Pay Act (Northern Ireland) 1970, similar provisions apply to Northern Ireland.

The Acts mark the fulfilment of a declared Trades Union Congress objective of some 80 years' standing and represent the implementation of a principle of social policy subscribed to by all the three main political parties. A Royal Commission on Equal Pay reported in 1946 but was unenthusiastic about the adoption of equal pay, feeling that it might result in a return to high unemployment levels for men. In 1955 the government introduced equal pay for the non-industrial civil service, for non-manual local authority workers and for teachers, and the measures took full effect in 1961.

Within the professions, equal pay is fairly generally accepted. This is particularly so in the law, medicine, teaching, the civil service, journalism, and for women Members of Parliament and Ministers of the Crown. The principle of equal pay has, however, remained the exception in industry, where the average weekly earnings of women manual employees are, generally speaking, markedly lower than those of men, and minimum time rates for women workers tend to be set at around 70 to 90 per cent of the corresponding male rates. The difference arises partly because, on average, women work shorter hours, with less overtime paid at premium rates, and partly because women are for the most part employed in different kinds of work from men, and their tasks are seldom classed as skilled or heavy and are often less well-paid than the work of unskilled men. In fact, the disparity in pay between the sexes is much more a reflection of the occupations in which they are employed than of inequality within the same occupation. In October 1970 the average full-time weekly earnings of women in industries included in a government survey were £13·99 for all industries and £13·98 for manufacturing industries (comparable earnings for men were £28·05 and £28·91 respectively). Women worked for an average of 37·9 hours per week in all

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[1] More detailed information about the Act is contained in the COI reference paper, *Equal Pay for Women*, SN 5880.

In 1971 Britain ratified the International Labour Organisation Convention No. 100, which lays down principles of equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value.

industries (men, 45·7 hours) and 37·7 hours per week in manufacturing industries (men, 44·9 hours).

Taxation

For income tax purposes, a single woman taxpayer is normally entitled to the same allowances as a single man in the same circumstances, including a personal allowance, earned income relief and dependent relative allowance. In the assessment of the tax payable by a married couple living together, the incomes of husband and wife are aggregated and treated as one income, but a higher allowance is given than for a single person. In law the husband is liable for the whole of the tax (it is to the husband that the married tax allowance is made); in practice a wife's earned income is generally taxed at source under the PAYE (pay as you earn) system. A wife's earned income attracts special reliefs and allowances so that, broadly speaking, it is liable to income tax in the same way as if she were single. The effect of the tax arrangements for married couples is that, so long as a woman and her husband do not between them earn more than about £4,005 a year, the woman pays no more tax than if single and the husband continues to receive the full married man's tax allowance; and up to a joint income of about £5,810 a year, a married couple pays less tax than two single people with the same earnings. Some married couples with joint incomes above that level will benefit from an alternative system which from 1972-73 will allow, if husband and wife so elect, the wife's earnings to be taxed separately as if she were a single woman with no other income. If they choose this alternative system, the husband will receive only the single person's allowance instead of the married man's allowance.

Special conditions attach to child allowances under the income tax rules where the parents are not living together, taking account of factors such as which parent bears the brunt of the child's maintenance. The age limit above which certain special reliefs apply for income tax purposes is the same for both men and women, 65 years.

MARRIAGE AND FAMILY PROVISIONS[1]

Any two people of the opposite sex[2] are free to marry provided that both are at least 18 years of age, that they are not closely related members of the same family, and that neither of them is already married (bigamy is unlawful and polygamy is not recognised by the law). Young people between the ages of 16 and 18 can marry on the same conditions, although they must have the consent of their parents, legal guardian or some authorised person, or, in the final instance, a court of law. Engagements to marry no longer entail any legal obligation. A woman may keep her citizenship of the United Kingdom and Colonies, and thus remain a British subject, even though she marries

[1] Legal provisions mentioned in this section are stated very broadly and are intended to apply to England and Wales only.

[2] For women whose sexual interest is directed towards women rather than men, the law has never prohibited homosexual behaviour in private (although for men such behaviour was prohibited until 1967).

a citizen of a foreign country; a women from a foreign country who marries a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies does not automatically acquire that citizenship, but she is entitled to acquire it by registration. Generally speaking, a mother's nationality has no bearing on that of her children: a child born within the United Kingdom and Colonies is a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies by birth, and a child born elsewhere of a father who is a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies by birth, registration, naturalisation, adoption or (in certain circumstances) by descent, acquires that citizenship from his father by descent.

During marriage a husband is bound to support his wife provided that she does not disentitle herself by behaving in a way contrary to the spirit of the marriage (for example by committing adultery or by deserting her husband), and a wife is liable to support her husband where his earning capacity is impaired.

Legal Status

A married woman has the same right to enter a legally binding contract as an unmarried woman. This means not only that she can enter into a contract with a third person independently of her husband, but also that she and her husband can make legally binding contracts between themselves.

A husband and his wife are equally responsible, and liable to pay compensation, for committing a tort (a civil wrong, other than a breach of contract or trust, for which the law provides redress), and each can claim damages in his or her own right as the victim of a tort. Spouses are allowed to bring actions in tort against each other (this has the practical advantage, for example, that it enables either partner to benefit from the other's insurance against third party risks in the field of personal injuries through negligent driving), but a court can stop the proceedings if it thinks that neither partner would benefit substantially from them.

Criminal law applies equally to unmarried men and women and to husbands and wives (although a wife may have a special defence to any charge apart from murder or treason if she proves that the criminal action was committed in the presence, and under the coercion, of her husband). Spouses can prosecute each other for any criminal offence as if they were not married (although for certain types of prosecutions the consent of the Director of Public Prosecutions is required).

Property Rights

Generally speaking, marriage does not affect the property rights of the spouses—whatever a man or woman owns at the time of marriage is presumed to continue to belong to him or her; similarly, during the marriage a wife (like her husband) owns the property bought with her own money. Spouses can themselves decide upon the ownership of property according to the general law of property; it is only when they do not decide, or when the necessary legal formalities have not been observed, that special principles of matrimonial property law are applied.

Disagreements about property between husbands and wives often involve the ownership or occupation of the matrimonial home. Most disputes about ownership occur if the marriage breaks down, and the courts have wide

powers to adjust spouses' property rights when granting decrees of divorce or judicial separation (see p. 12). Subject to the possibility of such an adjustment, however, if there are disputes over the ownership of the home, a prior agreement between the spouses about their rights is conclusive; if there is no agreement, their respective proprietary interests depend on their inferred intentions. When both the husband and the wife have contributed to the purchase of their home, it belongs to them both in equal shares unless there is evidence that they intended to share it in unequal proportions. A substantial contribution by one partner (whether in money or not) to the improvement of the home is taken into account in determining his or her share of it. When a husband and wife share the ownership of their home, each has a right to occupy it. If a husband (or, more unusually, a wife) alone owns the matrimonial home, his wife (or her husband) is entitled to statutory 'rights of occupation'—the right not to be excluded or evicted from the home without a court's permission and, should she be out of occupation, the right (granted by a court) to resume occupation. These rights cease if the marriage comes to an end unless a court has extended them beforehand; they can be registered to make them binding on third parties so that a 'protected' wife has priority of occupation over a purchaser or mortgagee until satisfactory arrangements have been made. A husband and his wife have an equal voice in choosing their home or its location, but each must behave reasonably in making the choice.

Nowadays it is usual for husbands and wives to pool their resources for their joint use, and, if the way they conduct their financial affairs indicates a similar intention to have a 'common purse', the property in it is owned by them both in equal shares (and on the death of one of them it belongs to the other). Many husbands give their wives a weekly 'housekeeping allowance' to pay for the running of the home: half of any savings from the allowance belong to her unless the spouses have come to some other agreement. When a husband buys property in his wife's name, the law presumes that he intends to make a gift of it to her; but if she buys property in his name it remains hers unless there is evidence that she intended him to have it.

Parental Rights

A father is technically recognised at common law as the guardian of his legitimate children up to the age of 18 (or until marriage at an earlier age if the child is a daughter).[1] On the father's death, the mother becomes her children's guardian. She is also recognised as the guardian of her illegitimate child (see p. 11). A guardian's duties towards his or her child include those of maintenance, education and religious upbringing. The guardian has custody of the child.

When a dispute between a husband and his wife over the custody or upbringing of a child is brought to court, the child's welfare is the paramount consideration, with the result that there is no presumption in favour of either spouse. Other things between the parents being equal, the courts usually regard the mother as more suitable to look after very small children and older girls, while the husband is more suitable to care for older boys. In

[1]The government has announced that it is to introduce legislation to give husbands and wives equal rights in the matter of the guardianship of their children.

practice, many fathers' claims are at a disadvantage compared with those of mothers' because, in view of the importance of children's welfare, a man's working life is rarely regarded as compatible with the day-to-day care of them. If the court makes an order granting custody to one parent, it will usually also specify that the other parent is to be allowed reasonable access to the child or children; but, in exceptional circumstances, it may forbid access by the other parent.

The great majority of illegitimate children are born to unmarried women or to married women living apart from their husbands (there is a legal presumption that a child born to a woman during her marriage is the legitimate child of her husband unless they are living apart under a decree of judicial separation or a magistrates' court order). The mother of an illegitimate child has the right of custody of the child and the right to determine his upbringing. She has a duty, as long as she is single or a widow or separated from her husband, to maintain the child until he is 16. Within time limits she can apply to a magistrates' court for an 'affiliation order', and, on proof of paternity, she may obtain an order against the father for a weekly sum of money for the maintenance and education of the child, payable generally until the child is 16 (it may be extended if the child takes a course of education or training). A father of an illegitimate child can apply for custody of, or access to, his child.

Women have equal rights with men as regards the adoption of children (and enjoy an advantage in that a man on his own—unlike a woman—is not allowed to adopt a girl other than in exceptional circumstances). Before an adoption order can be made, the consent of both parents of the child is required (unless a court decides otherwise); in the case of an illegitimate child, only the mother's consent is needed, although the father's views can be heard if he is contributing towards the child's maintenance. A mother cannot validly consent to an adoption until her child is at least six weeks old: this is to prevent her making a vital decision about the child's future at a time when she may not have recovered fully from her confinement.

Circumstances Following Death

In matters of succession, the members of a family are in an advantageous position. If a married person dies intestate (that is, without making a valid will), his or her spouse and children have priority; the succession rights of a widow or a widower are the same. Under the rules of 'family provision', courts can order maintenance to be paid out of a deceased person's property if, as a result of intestacy or of the contents of a valid will, hardship is caused to a surviving widow or widower, disabled children, unmarried daughter, or a son under the age of 21. Members of a family dependent on a married man (or woman) can claim compensation for their financial loss if he (or she) dies as a result of a third party's wrongful action, negligence or default. The compensation can cover actual loss (such as a housekeeping allowance which ceased because of the death) or prospective loss which a dependant could reasonably expect to have received from the deceased if he (or she) had not been killed. A husband can claim for the loss of his wife's domestic services.

Failure of Marriage

When a marriage fails, it is not necessary for either partner to resort to the law and the couple can make informal arrangements between themselves on all matters of common concern. If the law is invoked, however, the choice generally lies between entering a separation agreement, applying for a matrimonial order, or petitioning for a decree of divorce, a decree of judicial separation or for an annulment of the marriage.

At any time during their marriage a husband and wife can agree to live apart and the law will recognise such an agreement (whether formally constituted or not), the main practical purpose of which is usually to provide for the maintenance of the wife and children and to solve other questions such as custody of the children and divisions of property. In the absence of a voluntary separation agreement, a husband or a wife can apply to a magistrates' court for a matrimonial order, which provides for such matters as maintenance and, where necessary, the settlement of disputes relating to children. An order, which does not affect the validity of a marriage or (unless the court orders to the contrary) relieve the spouses of their duty to live together, can be made in favour of one partner as a result of the other's intolerable conduct—including desertion, adultery, or cruelty to or neglect of his or her spouse or the children of the family. Nearly all applicants for matrimonial orders are women: in 1969 some 29,000 married women applied for orders and about 20,000 were made.

A married woman can petition for a divorce on the same grounds as her husband—that is, if she can show that her marriage has broken down irretrievably and prove adultery, intolerable behaviour or desertion by her husband or that they have been living apart for a certain period.[1] In divorce proceedings, a court has wide powers to order financial provisions for the spouses and their children; financial remedies on the breakdown of a marriage operate in the interests of husbands and wives equally. A wife has the same right as her husband to petition for a decree of judicial separation (which has the effect of releasing the spouses from their duty to live together, without dissolving their marriage), and she is equally entitled to have her marriage annulled (for example, on the grounds of either spouse's impotence or her partner's refusal to consummate the marriage), although a husband may have an additional ground if at the time of marriage his wife was pregnant by some other man.

[1]For more detailed information about divorce legislation see COI reference paper, *The New Divorce Law in England and Wales*, SN 5891.

WOMEN AT WORK

IN GREAT BRITAIN more than two-fifths of women and girls aged 15 and over are working—by 1970 there were about 9 million women and girls in the working population—almost 36 per cent of the total. Some 8·6 million females were employees and about 361,000 were employers or self-employed. The following approximate figures give some indication of the extent of the contribution made by women to the labour force. Women and girls comprise

a third of the employees in all the manufacturing industries;
a third of the national and local government employees;
a fifth of the agricultural and horticultural workers; and
a sixth of the workers in transport and communications.

The total numbers of female employees exceed those of male employees in the distributive trades; in the clothing and footwear trades; in banking and many business services; in some professional and scientific services (including educational, legal and medical services); and in miscellaneous services such as catering, laundry work and hairdressing. Only a very small proportion of women, however, work in the building and contracting trades or in the public services supplying gas, electricity or water. About 28 per cent of women in the manufacturing industries are employed as administrative, technical and clerical staff. Generally speaking, proportionately fewer women than men register as unemployed.

There is a growing tendency for young people to remain longer in full-time education, but about two-thirds of girls leave school and start work at 15 or 16 years of age (the figure for boys is very slightly lower): over half a million of all female employees are girls under 18 years of age. Of the girls under 18 entering employment for the first time, 40 per cent take clerical jobs (compared with 8·3 per cent of boys); 7 per cent enter apprenticeships to skilled occupations (boys, 43 per cent); 1·8 per cent start training for professional qualifications (boys, 1·2 per cent); and 15 per cent enter other employment with a planned training (boys, 14 per cent).

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF FEMALE EMPLOYEES IN GREAT BRITAIN

Thousands

Age	Mid-June 1969
Under 20	1,194
20–29	1,947
30–39	1,373
40–49	1,928
50–59	1,591
60 and over	609
	8,642*

*Of whom 5,119 were married.

There has been a great increase in the number of married women at work, especially since the second world war. About 59 per cent (5·1 million) of female employees in Great Britain are married, compared with about 43 per cent in 1951 and 53 per cent in 1961, and it is estimated that in the 1980s two-thirds of all working women will be married: almost two-fifths of married women are now economically active, compared with just over a quarter in 1951 (and the indications are that more married women would like to take up some employment outside the home if circumstances permitted them to do so). The increase has been brought about partly by the effect of war on attitudes to work, and partly by the tendency for women to marry and have children at an earlier age and then return to work (the birth of the first child, rather than marriage, has become the most usual occasion for a woman to give up work, whether or not she resumes it later). Few married women work outside their homes while their children are below school age (compulsory schooling starts at 5[1]), with the result that a considerable proportion of married women employees are women without children (including young women who continue their jobs after marriage until they have children) or else women—usually over the age of 30—who no longer have very young children to look after. Many married women work on a part-time basis (particularly in the social services and retail distribution); and some employers make special provisions—for instance, flexible hours, help with transport and child-minding—to attract married women employees and those with other domestic commitments. The Department of Employment helps to meet employers' needs for women workers through its employment and industrial relations services. Employment exchanges attempt to match employers' requirements from among their registrants; they mount special recruitment campaigns in areas where there are particular shortages of women workers; they advise employers on the arrangement of shifts and other working conditions to attract and retain married women; and they provide women with information and advice on career opportunities, on facilities for training and refresher training, on openings for part-time work and on facilities available locally for the day-care of children. The department's Occupational Guidance Service is of particular help to women considering returning to employment.

The Advisory Committee on Women's Employment (originally constituted in 1941 as the Women's Consultative Committee) advises the Secretary of State for Employment on problems of employment policy relating to women.

Training facilities for women are made available by many industrial firms. The industrial training boards set up under the Industrial Training Act 1964 consider the training needs of women workers, and their training recommendations or grant schemes have application to both men and women. Women are eligible for training at government training centres, but since such training is generally given for work in skilled manual occupations, few in fact undertake it. Women do, however, account for about a third of all employees taking government vocational training courses other than in the centres. In addition, women form a substantial proportion of those being

[1]Mothers with children of school age are often helped to take employment outside the home by the length of the school day (usually 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.) and by the provision at school of lunch-time meals (see p. 28).

trained by industry in skills usually below the craft level with the help of grants under the government's scheme of assistance for firms creating additional jobs in areas of high unemployment which have been designated 'development' and 'intermediate' areas.

Trade Unions

Nearly 2·5 million women in Britain belonged to trade unions at the beginning of 1970. Union membership among women is proportionately smaller than among men, particularly because many women are employed only on a part-time basis and because many work in relatively unorganised occupations—the distributive and other service industries such as catering and clerical jobs. In 1969/70 there were two women members on the leading trade union body in Britain—the Trades Union Congress (TUC) General Council—and on three occasions a woman has been president of the TUC. Unions catering for women meet annually, most of the delegates being women; they elect five members to the TUC Women's Advisory Committee which also has eight members appointed by the TUC General Council and which meets regularly to advise the council on issues related to women's employment.

Housework

In the households of Britain—about 97 per cent of the population live in a private household, either alone or with other people—it is usual for women to accept the main responsibility for the care of the home and of the family. This applies equally to the many women who are not engaged in paid work (well over half the women over 19 in Great Britain, for example, are not employed), and to women who go to employment outside the home, although other members of the family nowadays give considerable help with domestic work. Living and working conditions in the home depend largely upon the social and financial background of its occupants, and, although variations in the material standards are diminishing, they still exist in sufficient strength to invalidate most generalisations. Nevertheless, a few facts are clear. Most women do their own catering and housework; probably less than five per cent of households employ any regular paid help (the number of domestic workers in Great Britain—which includes some 87,200 females—has fallen by more than half since the early 1960s); and very few households have a resident servant nowadays, although a few households—mainly those with small children—have an *au pair* girl from an overseas country living with them and helping with the housework and the care of any children in return for her keep, entertainment and pocket money and a chance to learn the English language (at any one time there are about 20,000 *au pair* girls in Great Britain). A number of households receive help through the local authority home help service, either because of an invalid or elderly person in the house or because a mother is having her baby at home.

Housework is being made easier by changes in habits and equipment—for instance, the increased use of easily cleaned plastic surfaces in place of materials which need scrubbing and polishing, and of non-iron fabrics and babies' disposable napkins; the availability of convenience foods (processed foods requiring little additional preparation before consumption), and hot 'take-home' meals; and by the spread of labour-saving devices. More than

four households in five have a vacuum cleaner, more than one in two a refrigerator, two out of three a washing machine, nearly all an electric iron and one in five an electric food mixer. Nearly one household in three has completely eliminated the traditional coal fire in the principal living room, and a quarter of the households have full or partial central heating. Communications are becoming easier for housewives—over half of the households have at least one car and a third have a telephone.

Women who are employed outside the home are helped in their domestic work, not only by members of their families, but also, for instance, by the increased provision of launderettes with extended opening hours and by the tendency for shops, especially in large towns, to remain open for longer periods on some evenings in the week.

Many women working at home are now able to feed their families better than formerly, mainly because most of them have more money to spend, but also because of the spread of education in food values and cooking methods, which is nowadays given at welfare clinics, in the daily and weekly press (including women's magazines—see p. 38) and on television and radio.

The housing shortage since 1945 has meant that some families are obliged to live in housing conditions which are often unsuitable for their requirements, and this has in many cases made women's domestic work more difficult. On the other hand, many families now live in much more pleasant and convenient dwellings than before; since 1945 more than 7 million new dwellings have been built—houses with gardens, or flats or maisonettes. Over a million government grants for the improvement of existing houses have been made available and many old houses have been made more comfortable by adaptation and conversion. The average size of houses in Britain has risen by nearly 20 per cent in the past 30 years, and the degree of overcrowding within households in Britain is lower than in most other European countries.

Industry

An estimated 2·87 million females were employed in the production industries in Great Britain in June 1970 (out of a total of some 10·85 million employees in these industries), and 2·7 million females were working in manufacturing industries. Some 364,100 were in food, drink and tobacco industries; 617,000 in the various engineering industries; 197,000 in other metal goods industries; 319,000 in textiles; 351,000 in clothing and footwear; and 220,000 in paper, printing and publishing industries.

Most of the highly skilled jobs in industry are, by custom, performed by men, except in the textile and pottery industries, where the traditional skill of women plays an important part. Most of the heavy labour in industry is also left to men, although this is by custom and not by law, except in the coal industry, where it is illegal to employ women as underground workers.

The hours worked by women engaged in industrial and certain other occupations are limited by law to 9 hours a day and 48 hours a week as a general rule, with a small allowance of overtime. Night-work and work on Sundays is normally prohibited, but shift-work on weekdays between 6 a.m. and 10 p.m. may be authorised in certain circumstances. The normal hours which women are required to work are settled (like those of men) by agreement between the trade unions and the employers' associations concerned, and

are often less than the statutory maximum, while their actual hours are not (like those for men) generally extended by overtime working. The average time worked by women of 18 years of age and over in all the manufacturing industries and in some of the principal non-manufacturing industries is about 38 hours a week.

As in the case of hours of work, some of the modern laws concerning welfare, health and safety in factories apply only to women—for example, they are prohibited from working with lead compounds and from working in factories within four weeks after childbirth—but such enactments are exceptional since most regulations for the welfare of employees apply to everyone regardless of age or sex.

Agriculture

Comparatively few women in Britain work on the land: by 1970 fewer than 100,000 were employed on agricultural holdings in Great Britain, over a third of whom were casual employees working at irregular intervals. These figures exclude farmers' wives, who have always worked in close partnership with their husbands, having a particular interest in dairy work and poultry keeping.

Women who are interested in the subject frequently take specialised training courses in various aspects of agriculture and horticulture (provided at a number of universities, county farm institutes and other institutions for further education) which fit them for reasonably well-paid careers in practical farming or gardening, in experimental stations, or in farm secretarial work.

Business

The great majority of confidential secretaries, shorthand typists, filing clerks and telephone operators in business offices are women, but women are rarely managing directors or members of the board of directors of the larger commercial firms. In the same way, although there are more female than male shop assistants, and a considerable number of women become departmental managers or buyers, fewer women than men reach the topmost rank in large department stores. One difficulty is that girls entering commerce tend to marry before they have many years of experience and, after marriage or after they have had children, they are unable or unwilling to devote sufficient time and energy to furthering their careers.

Nevertheless, women (including increasing numbers of women graduates and those with professional qualifications who enter jobs in commerce) are being employed more and more in the higher grades of the business world. Every year more women are appointed to responsible positions as personnel managers, as managers of small firms, and as directors of small companies. There are several women bank managers and increasing numbers of women are becoming chief clerks in banks.

The Professions

Practically all professions are open to women,[1] although the proportion of

[1]The London Stock Exchange does not allow women to take an active part in the conduct of business or in the management of member firms. In a recent report on restrictive practices in the professions, the Monopolies Commission examined the practice of sex discrimination, and the London Stock Exchange was the only professional body from which it took evidence of the non-admission of women to membership: *The Monopolies Commission: a report on the general effect on the public interest of certain restrictive practices so far as they prevail in relation to the supply of professional services. Part 1: The Report.* Cmnd. 4463, HMSO, 1970, £0·55.

women and the range of opportunities open to them within individual professions vary considerably. In some, women are very much in the minority (accountancy, engineering and law, for example); in others there are many more women than men (for instance, nursing and many of the social services); and in others (such as teaching and medicine) the sexes are more equally represented. In the professions, trade unions are on the whole less important in regulating conditions of employment than are professional associations whose main concern is normally with standards rather than pay. Equal pay within individual professions has usually been the case, but, in general, the level of pay in male-dominated professions is higher than that in female-dominated professions. This is for the most part a result of the evolution of the main female-dominated professions—nursing and the basic social services —from the voluntary efforts in the nineteenth century of leisured women who could support themselves.

Nowadays, except in the medical professions, the possibility of an early marriage often makes it difficult for young women to obtain the practical experience essential at the start of their careers if they are to reach the highest ranks; for there is often a reluctance among professional firms to engage a woman as a member of the staff if she is likely to leave just as her services are becoming of real value. Nevertheless, increasing numbers of professional women are continuing their careers after marriage, and it is becoming more common to find women at the higher levels of most professions.

Nursing and Midwifery

Qualified nurses in Great Britain may either be registered or enrolled. A large majority are women and most of these are engaged in general nursing while some are trained to look after sick children, the mentally ill or the mentally handicapped. Midwifery is entirely a woman's profession. Many practising nurses and midwives work in National Health Service hospitals (some 112,000 qualified women nurses and 12,000 certified midwives in England and Wales) or are employed by local health authorities and engaged on district nursing, domiciliary midwifery or health visiting; others undertake school, industrial or private nursing, or work in children's homes and nurseries, or serve in the nursing services attached to the armed forces (see p. 23).

Those entering training for registration or enrolment as nurses must, broadly speaking, be at least 18 years of age. The statutory period of training for registration is three years and during that time students receive instruction in hospital wards and in the classroom, and have a certain amount of private study time. As well as the normal three-year training schemes, there are a number of experimental schemes: many are combined schemes lasting about four years and giving the student an opportunity of gaining more than one qualification—for example, some schemes lead to registration and a university degree in biology, sociology or psychology, and others lead to registration, the Health Visitors' Certificate and the National Certificate of District Nursing. Women and girls wishing to qualify as enrolled nurses take a two-year course of a practical nature which is open to people with no special academic qualifications and which aims to produce competent bedside nurses.

The minimum period of training leading to certification as a midwife is usually one year or less for registered nurses trained in general or sick children's nursing, 18 months for other registered and enrolled nurses, and two years for women with no nursing qualifications. Part of the training is taken in hospital and part in domiciliary practice.

Following the recommendations of a report on the structure of senior nursing staff,[1] a new pattern of nursing administration is being introduced in hospitals. The new structure offers nurses of all abilities and inclinations the opportunity to make their own particular contribution to the care of patients and to the training of students and pupils. At the same time, nurses may advance in three different ways—in clinical nursing, in nursing administration and in teaching. The need for the development of managerial skills has been recognised and provided for.

In March 1970 the government announced the setting up of a committee to review the role of the nurse and the midwife in the hospital and the community, and the education and training required for that role, so that the best use is made of available manpower to meet present needs and the needs of an integrated health service.

Teaching

Women represent rather more than half of the 440,000 full-time teachers in publicly maintained and assisted schools and educational institutions in Great Britain. In the publicly maintained primary schools (where most children under 11 are educated) women constitute nearly three-quarters of the teaching staff, but in the maintained secondary schools more men than women are teachers—women represent only about two-fifths of the total staff. Of the 17 per cent of women teachers who are graduates, almost two-thirds teach in the maintained secondary schools. Of the students taking courses of initial teacher training in 1969 more than two-thirds were women.

The 3,392 women holding teaching and research posts in universities at the beginning of 1969 represented about 1·5 per cent of the professors, 7 per cent of the readers and senior lecturers, 11 per cent of the lecturers, and 28 per cent of the other members of the academic staff.

Public Administration

In public administration as a whole females comprise about a third of all employees. By 1970 some 32,000 women accounted for some 15 per cent of the total number of industrial civil servants (both full-time and part-time); in the non-industrial sector (where women have earned pay equal to that of men since 1961) about 195,000 (40 per cent) of the staff were women. Women comprised 9 per cent of the home service administrative grade, 21 per cent of the general executive grade and more than half of the clerical grades (this does not include typists, nearly all of whom are women). The Civil Service Department is studying ways of making it easier for women to stay in the service after marriage and to return after having children.

In the local government service some 30 per cent of the 842,000 employees in Britain in 1970 were females; and more than a third of the members of the National and Local Government Officers' Association are women. In 1960 the

[1] *Report of the Committee on Senior Nursing Staff Structure*, HMSO, £0·62½.

first woman town clerk was appointed; by 1970 there were nine women clerks or town clerks in local authorities in Britain.

Medicine and Medical Auxiliary Services

There are about 23,000 women doctors out of a total of 118,000 registered medical practitioners,[1] and some 15,000 live in Britain. Of the registered women doctors, about 80 per cent are thought to be working, with an increasing number working part-time. There have been recent schemes to attract married women doctors back into the hospital service; many women doctors who have left the profession are given retraining in the latest medical developments so that they can re-enter medical practice. Women comprise some 28 per cent of the medical students graduating from medical schools in Britain; about 7 per cent of the hospital consultants; and nearly 48 per cent of doctors in local government service (though only 6 per cent of the local medical officers of health are women).

Women dentists number over 2,000 and represent about 12 per cent of all registered dentists, and most dental nurses and assistants are women. Women also practise as ophthalmic and dispensing opticians, and one in six pharmacists is a woman. In most of the professions supplementary to medicine, women are in the majority—they represent about 85 per cent of the membership of the Society of Radiographers, about half of the membership of the Society of Chiropodists, and the great majority of qualified occupational and speech therapists and of physiotherapists. A considerable number of women are employed as medical laboratory technicians.

Social Work

In many branches of social work, women outnumber men. For example, women comprise the majority of child care officers, psychiatric social workers, housing managers, home-help organisers, home teachers of the blind, medical social workers and family case workers. There are more men than women probation officers (women constitute between a third and a quarter of the officers in England and Wales), but most cases involving children and young people and matrimonial affairs are dealt with by women. The preponderance of women in the social services—which is explained in part by the development of the services from the voluntary efforts of women who had the time and resources to devote their attention to social problems—is reflected in university psychology and sociology courses, for example, which are studied by more women than men (social workers nowadays are generally expected to have taken a university course in social science followed by a specialist training).

The Law

Of the 2,584 barristers practising in England and Wales in October 1970, 147 were women, and three of the 112 advocates practising in Scotland are women. There are at present two women Queen's Counsel (senior barristers and advocates)—Miss Margaret Henderson Kidd was, in 1948, the first woman to achieve this rank. Women constitute about 2·8 per cent of the

[1]This total includes some doctors who are not working at present, or who are employed in overseas countries, or have retired from regular work.

23,600 practising solicitors in England and Wales and some 4·1 per cent of over 3,200 in Scotland. (For women involved in the administration of justice, see p. 24.)

Journalism

At the end of 1970 about 3,700 of the total membership of 24,800 of the National Union of Journalists were women. A number of these were fashion correspondents and feature writers on daily newspapers, or were editing or writing for 'women's magazines'—weekly or monthly journals covering subjects of special interest to women (see p. 38). Outside this mainly feminine field, women hold general editorial posts in the periodical press and on newspaper reporting staffs. Some newspapers and journals employ women as film critics or part-time correspondents on public affairs, and all include a number of women among their staffs. Among reporting staffs of regional daily and weekly newspapers, women constitute a quarter of the employees.

Broadcasting

In March 1970 there were 8,600 women out of some 23,800 full-time and part-time staff of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), including the clerical staff, producers, news-reporters, scriptwriters, studio managers, monitors, education officers and research workers. There are four senior women officers—the head of the gramophone department on the radio side; the assistant controller of developments and the heads of children's programmes and of make-up on the television side. Women are also employed in varying capacities on the staff of the Independent Television Authority (ITA) and the programme companies.

There are two women governors of the BBC; one woman on the National Broadcasting Council for Scotland; two on the National Broadcasting Council for Wales; and there are 12 on the general advisory council of the BBC. Women are also represented on the other advisory councils—for example, in the regions and for religious and educational broadcasting. Two of the ten members of the ITA are women.

Advertising

The 2,000 members and diploma holders of the Institute of Practitioners in Advertising include 75 women. Women are employed in advertising companies not only as copywriters and in design departments but also on the client contact side and there are at least three women managing directors and 25 company secretaries.

Librarianship

About two-thirds of the 8,000 chartered librarians working in Britain are women (chartered librarians are those who have taken special training courses and may be university graduates), and three-quarters of the students of librarianship are women.

The Arts

A large number of women are professional artists and some of them—particularly modern poets, novelists, playwrights, musicians, actresses and

dancers—have won world-wide renown. Fewer women attain the first rank in the fine arts—as painters, sculptors and architects—and women composers are comparatively rare. Among the women whose contribution to the arts have been recognised by the award of honours are: Dame Peggy Ashcroft, Dame Edith Evans, Dame Flora Robson and Dame Sybil Thorndike (theatre); Dame Ninette de Valois, Dame Margot Fonteyn, Dame Alicia Markova and Dame Marie Rambert (ballet); Dame Barbara Hepworth (sculpture); Miss Elizabeth Bowen and Dame Agatha Christie (literature); and Miss Elisabeth Lutyens (music).

The Church

Women are admitted to the ministries of the Baptist, Congregational, Methodist and Unitarian free churches, the Church of Scotland and some Presbyterian churches. They are on an equal footing with men in the Salvation Army and the Society of Friends; and they may work as missionaries, deaconesses and lay workers in the established Church of England. There are also Roman Catholic and Church of England nuns, many of whom engage in charitable and educational work. A Church of England report, *Women in Ministry* (see Reading List), approved in 1968 the growing participation of women in the administrative and legislative work of the Church, but decided against revising its policy which does not allow the ordination of women.

Science and Engineering

An increasing number of women are entering the various scientific and engineering professions. Many women scientists are engaged on research and experimental work both in government institutions and in industry; and women are frequently employed on engineering research as electrical engineers, and in the design departments of aeronautical and other engineering establishments. The profession offers opportunities for women equal to those of men; the Women's Engineering Society has some 300 members who are professional engineers, and the Chartered Engineering Institutions have about 200 women members. Since women were first elected to Fellowship of the Royal Society[1] after the end of the second world war, 24 women have achieved this distinction, and there are at present 22 women out of a total of about 742 Fellows.

The Police Service

The number of policewomen in Great Britain is just under 4,400 (about four per cent of the total strength of the police forces). They have the same status and powers as their male colleagues and, except in a few small forces, have their own supervising officers responsible for administration, welfare and discipline. At the beginning of 1971 there were in England and Wales seven female Chief Superintendents (including a woman Commander in the Metropolitan Police in London) and 32 women Superintendents. Policewomen have the same training as the men at all levels and are required to take the same promotion examinations. Some women, like some men, enter the police

[1]The society, whose full title is the Royal Society of London for the Promotion of Natural Knowledge, is the oldest scientific society in Great Britain. It was founded in 1660.

force as university graduates under schemes for the recruitment of those with higher educational qualifications.

As in the case of their male colleagues, uniformed patrol duty is an important part of policewomen's work. They make an important contribution towards prevention and detection of crime; they are involved in enquiries and observation with detectives and plain-clothes departments; and, in particular, they give help and advice in a wide variety of cases in which women, girls and children are involved.

In Great Britain there are over 2,100 women traffic wardens who are employed to discharge specified duties connected with road traffic, normally undertaken by the police; and there are some 1,770 women special constables —volunteers willing to perform police duties without pay in their spare time, A considerable proportion, too, of the civilian staff employed by most police authorities (clerical and catering staff, for example) are women.

The Fire Service

There are more than a thousand women employed on a full-time basis in local authority fire brigades in Great Britain, and others work part-time. The women's branch of the fire service is concerned mainly with watchroom and control duties, administrative work and duties of a clerical nature.

The Armed Forces

By April 1970 there were some 14,000 women serving on the active strength of the armed forces. The Royal Navy, the Army and the Royal Air Force each have a women's service—the Women's Royal Naval Service, the Women's Royal Army Corps and the Women's Royal Air Force. These services are a permanent and integral part of the armed forces of the Crown and their officers hold the Queen's Commission. Women serving in them undertake a wide range of skilled and specialised duties, overseas as well as in Britain.

Nursing services in the navy are provided by Queen Alexandra's Royal Naval Nursing Service; in the army by Queen Alexandra's Royal Army Nursing Corps, which is a corps of the regular army; and in the air force by the Princess Mary's Royal Air Force Nursing Service.

Public Life

Women play their part in the public life of the nation in a variety of ways in central and local government and in the administration of justice;[1] they also make their views on public issues known through the women's voluntary organisations (see p. 38).

In Parliament

Since 1918 (when women first became entitled to be elected to the House of Commons), 94 women have been elected to the United Kingdom Parliament

[1] Women in most of the public offices outlined in this section (like men) do not receive payment for their services, although in some cases allowances may be made for various necessary expenses. The main exceptions are members of the House of Commons, who receive an annual salary; some paid officers of the political parties; and members of the judiciary (other than magistrates, who receive no salary for their work but may be paid a subsistence allowance and an allowance for their loss of income or extra expenses incurred in attendance at court).

and 27 have attained ministerial rank, eight as full ministers. In the general election of 1970 there were some 99 women candidates; 26 were elected, and two have been appointed ministers, one a Cabinet minister. Since the passing of the Life Peerages Act 1958 (admitting women to the House of Lords as life peeresses) 26 women have been created peeresses for life. Hereditary peeresses are also eligible to sit in the House of Lords under the Peerage Act 1963, and of the present 20 hereditary peeresses 19 have seats in the House.

Since the formation of the Northern Ireland Parliament in 1921, eight women have been elected to the House of Commons and the first of these became a Minister in the Northern Ireland Government. At present there is one woman member of the House of Commons.

In Political Parties

Women have also played a prominent part in the organisations of the major political parties, each of which has a women's advisory committee or women's organisation. Since 1926, 14 women have served in the annually elected office of chairman of the National Union of Conservative and Unionist Associations and three women have been elected president; one of the two vice-chairmen of the Conservative Party organisation is normally a woman. The administrative authority of the Labour Party—the National Executive Committee—has a section for five women members to be elected by the annual party conference—in all there are now seven women members of the committee; since 1930, ten women have been elected to serve as chairman of the committee. Women participate actively in the Liberal Party organisation at all levels and have on many occasions held the highest positions, including the presidency. An autonomous body, the Women's Liberal Federation, founded in 1887, is a recognised unit of the Liberal Party but independent of it.

Local Government

Women hold many important positions in the local government of Great Britain. In 1970 there were 14 women mayors and council chairmen in the 141 county and county borough councils of England and Wales (excluding London); and some 12 per cent of the councillors in England (excluding London) were women. There were seven women provosts in the 130 burghs of Scotland.

Administration of Justice

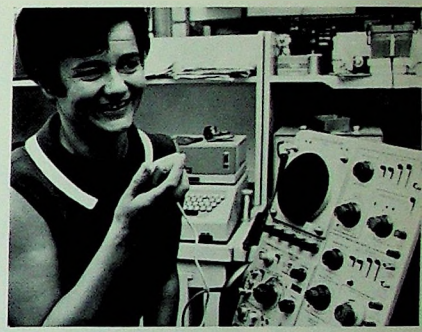
In England and Wales some 6,700 of the 19,200 magistrates are women (compared with 3,700 out of a total of 16,800 in 1948); in the juvenile courts (magistrates' courts presided over by not more than three magistrates, and specially constituted to deal with children and young people) at least one magistrate must be a woman and one a man. There is a woman judge of the High Court and a Recorder of a Court of Quarter Sessions in England and Wales, and in Scotland there is a woman Sheriff Principal and a woman Sheriff Substitute. (For women in the legal profession, see p. 20.)

Women are called for jury service on the same terms as men. Since jurors must be householders, however, in practice relatively few women qualify because in a family the husband is usually the householder, and not so many

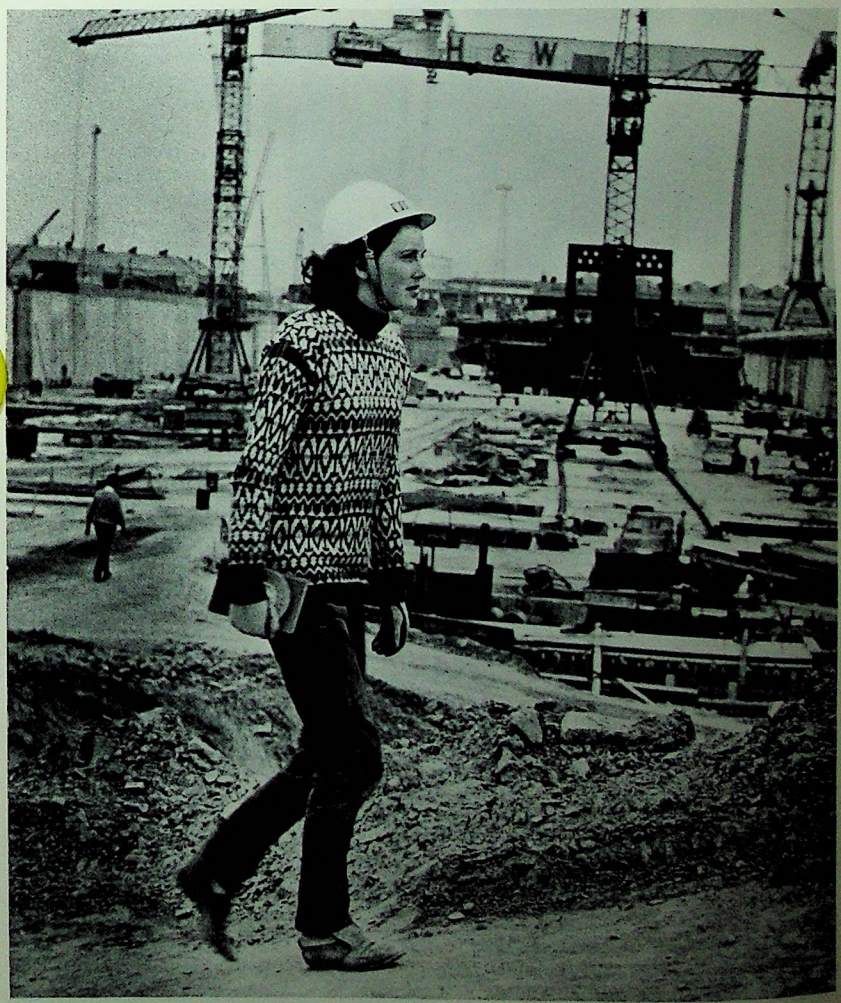
Princess Anne riding her horse 'Doublet' in the three-day European horse trials at Burghley, September 1971

The Queen presented Princess Anne with the Raleigh Trophy, the first prize, and the European Championship Gold Medal.

Dr Elizabeth Laverick, a joint general manager of advanced research and development projects, tests a device for recording data on aircraft landings.

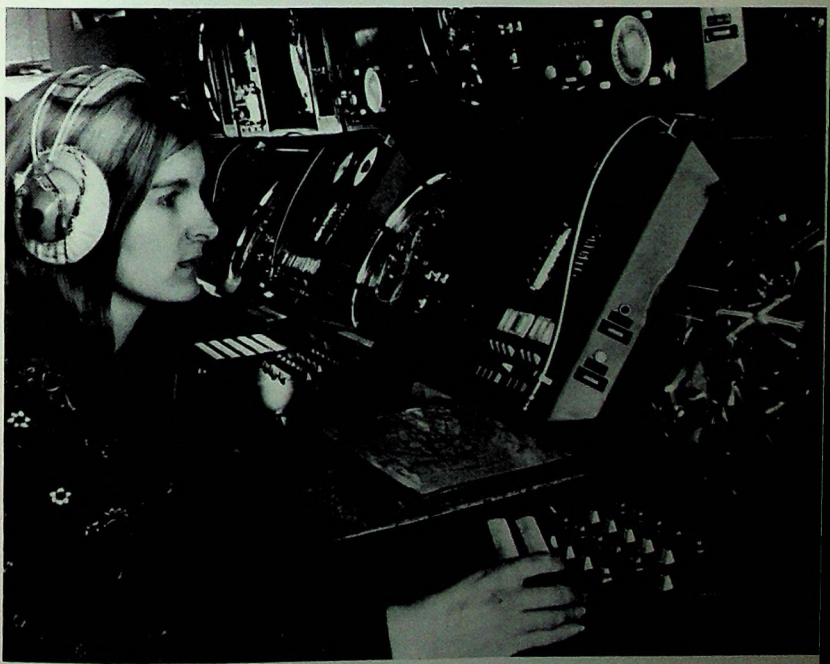


A civil engineer on a dry building dock, responsible for ensuring that plans and drawings are exactly translated on the site.



Experimenting with sewage treatment at the Water Pollution Research Laboratory, Stevenage.

On air-traffic control at London's Heathrow airport.



There are nearly 4,400 women police officers in Great Britain.

Left: High Court judge, the Honourable Mrs Justice Lane.

Right: Air Commodore Bridget Martin of the Women's Royal Air Force, recently appointed a Director of Personnel Management, responsible for both men and women.

Professor Dorothy Hodgkin, who was awarded the Nobel Prize for Chemistry in 1964, holds the Wolfson Research Professorship at Oxford University.

Community Service volunteers helping immigrant wives to learn English.

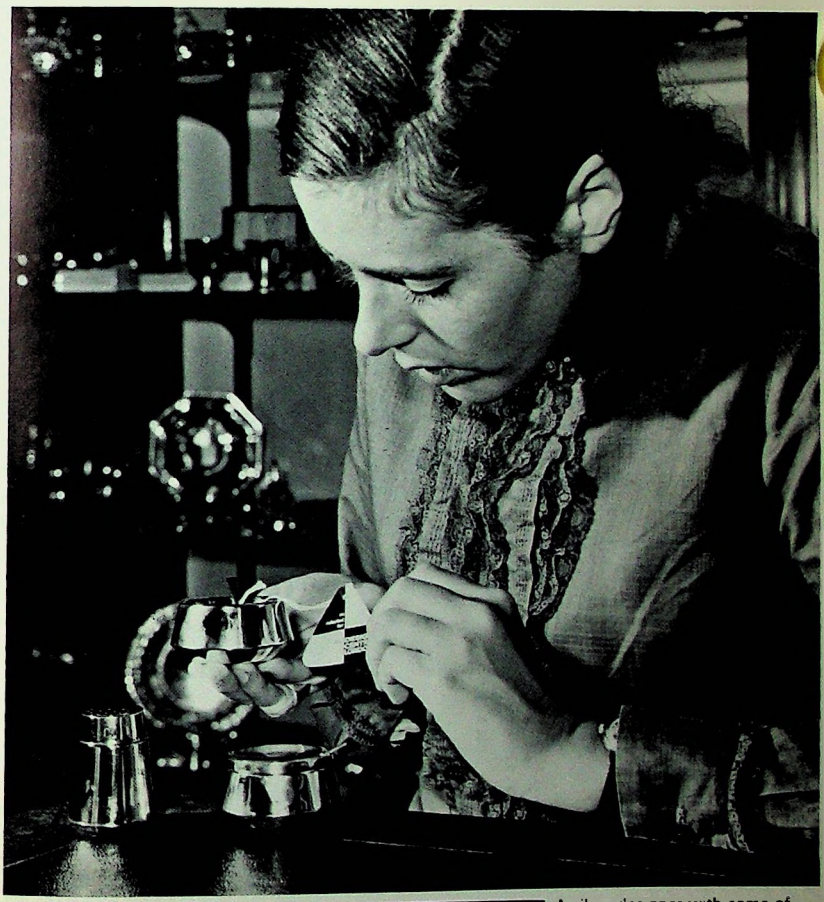
A hospital nurse using radioisotope equipment.

Centre left: A pre-school playgroup leader and her student-teacher helper at a group run by the Women's Royal Voluntary Service.

A local authority social worker discusses family problems.

Schoolgirls learning about hospital work.

Girls from the Women's Royal Army Corps on a junior leaders' course learn mountain-rescue techniques.



A silver designer with some of her work selected by the Design Centre in London.

Dorothy Tutin (left) and Vivien Merchant appearing in Harold Pinter's play, 'Old Times', produced in 1971 by the Royal Shakespeare Company.

Bridget Riley at the entrance of her painting, 'Continuum', which completely encircles the viewer.

single women qualify as householders in their own right. The Morris Committee on Jury Service in England and Wales[1] recommended in 1965 that, since 'the contribution which women can make as jurors is no less valuable than that made by men', the qualification requirements for jury service should be adapted to allow more women to serve.

Other Forms of Public Service

It is customary for women to be included in the membership of Royal Commissions and other advisory committees (some have been chairmen of such bodies) set up to investigate matters of public concern and make recommendations to the government. They also serve on the many bodies set up to assist in administration, such as regional hospital boards and hospital management committees, and on administrative tribunals of various kinds.

Through the Women's National Commission (see p. 20) which comprises representatives of organisations with large numbers of women members throughout Britain, the informed opinion of women is fully considered in the government's deliberations on matters of public interest.

[1] *Report of the Departmental Committee on Jury Service*, Cmnd 2627.

WOMEN AND THE SOCIAL SERVICES

THE FOLLOWING section is concerned with the social services as they particularly affect women. The services dealt with are education, housing, health and personal social services and social security. In addition, the provisions made for girls and women who offend against the law are briefly described. (For a general account of all these services see COI reference pamphlet, *Social Services in Britain*, R.5595/69.)

EDUCATION[1]

In Britain education is provided free in publicly maintained schools (which are attended by about 92 per cent of schoolchildren) and is compulsory between the ages of 5 and at least 15 for boys and girls alike (the minimum school leaving age is to be raised to 16 in 1972–73). The percentage of pupils remaining at school beyond the age of 15 is very slightly higher for boys than for girls.

Generally, both sexes are taught the same subjects to the same standards, although there is some modification on the practical side to suit differences in interests and requirements. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, it is usual in the publicly maintained sector for boys and girls to be taught together in primary schools (until the age of 11), but about half the secondary schools are for boys or girls only; in state-aided schools in Scotland, co-education is normal throughout the school career. In the independent sector, most primary schools are co-educational, but the majority of secondary schools are either for boys or for girls. Study at the universities is co-educational and, although there are separate colleges for men and women at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge and some separate hostels and students' unions in several civic universities and the universities of Scotland, the trend is towards a lesser degree of separation, especially in the newest universities.

Grants and scholarships from public funds for attendance at the universities are available equally to boys and girls. University scholarships from private funds are more available for boys since most were endowed when higher education for girls was little known. Fewer women than men study at the universities—about 27 per cent of undergraduate and postgraduate students (both full and part-time) in 1968–69 were women—and there are far fewer women taking higher technological courses. More women than men attend teachers' training colleges: in 1969–70 about 69 per cent of students on initial training courses in England and Wales were women. Recent measures to attract more mature students into the teaching profession—including the provision of shortened courses and day colleges—have met with a great response from women, many of whom were too tied by domestic duties to undertake other forms of training. In other grant-aided establishments—for example, technical colleges, agricultural and art colleges—there are more men but the balance is much more even. The Open University, which requires no formal academic qualifications from its students, provides degree and

[1]See pp. 28-29 for nursery education and other pre-school provisions.

other courses using television and correspondence facilities and a network of viewing and listening centres. The courses began in January 1971 and, of the 42,000 applicants, some 25,000 were offered places: women comprised 30 per cent of the applicants and 26 per cent of those accepted; 4 per cent of the applications came from housewives and 10 per cent of the places have been allocated to them.

HOUSING

Local authorities are responsible for the provision of accommodation in their areas and, in Great Britain, in allocating rented housing provided by themselves, authorities give preference to families; single people, whether men or women, are less likely to qualify, except for accommodation provided for the elderly. Loans to enable people to buy their own homes by a system of instalment purchase are available from various sources, including building societies, industrial companies, industrial and provident societies and local authorities (lenders have to be sure that a borrower would be able to maintain the repayments on a loan, and do not normally lend more than three times a person's annual income). Some sources are reluctant to lend money for the purchase of flats, which operates to the disadvantage of single people wanting smaller premises than an average-sized house (there are more single women than single men in the population in the middle age ranges).

Local authorities are able to provide help in a number of ways for families who are homeless or at risk of becoming homeless. Many authorities use their powers to assist families at risk who are in financial difficulties and they provide temporary accommodation for families who become homeless through eviction or other misfortune. This accommodation is available for families with one or two parents, very often for deserted wives or unmarried mothers with children.

HEALTH AND PERSONAL SOCIAL SERVICES

Comprehensive medical care is provided free or for a very small charge under the National Health Service for all who are normally resident in Britain. Maternity and child welfare centres offer regular supervision by doctors, midwives and health visitors to expectant and nursing mothers and young children: a feature of the service is the instruction of mothers in talks, discussion groups, demonstrations and classes. Some three-quarters of babies born in England and Wales and about two-thirds of those born in Scotland in 1967 were taken to the centres.

An expectant mother usually arranges through her family doctor to have her baby at home or in hospital: more than three-quarters of confinements in England and Wales take place in hospital. Those women for whom confinement at home is inadvisable for medical reasons or because of unsuitable home conditions have their babies in hospital. A mother who has her baby at home is cared for by a general practitioner, obstetrician or her own family doctor, as well as by a trained midwife and, if necessary, a consultant obstetrician. Babies born prematurely are usually looked after in hospital, but many local health authorities make arrangements to supervise the care of those who are fit to remain in their own homes.

Many services are provided for unmarried mothers, sometimes through voluntary bodies which undertake individual casework or provide homes and hostels. Local authority health and social service departments are required to provide a range of services for mothers whether married or not—for example, social service departments can provide skilled social workers to give support and advice with any social problems that may arise, and in problem cases may assist in arranging accommodation. They can also provide home-helps and other forms of domestic assistance. Health departments provide nursing facilities, health centres and clinics where a mother with her baby can be given advice on health problems and where there are programmes for vaccination and inoculation of young children. Health visitors (qualified nurses with special training) visit the homes of mothers and their very young children and give advice on caring for the baby and any particular health worries that may arise. Most religious organisations offer considerable help —including casework with parents and their children, the provision of homes where a mother can stay with her baby, and hostels for working mothers. Non-denominational associations which provide hostels or homes include the Women's Royal Voluntary Service and Dr. Barnardo's. The National Council for the Unmarried Mother and Her Child (formed in 1918) and the Scottish Council for the Unmarried Mother and Her Child (formed in 1945) are perhaps the best-known of the voluntary organisations which promote the better care of unmarried mothers and their children by working for improvements in legislation affecting them. Direct advice is also offered, although a large proportion of enquiries is referred to an appropriate local body.

Under the welfare food service, milk is provided free for certain expectant mothers and children under school age in large families and to those in need. Dried milk as an alternative to fresh milk, orange juice, cod liver oil and vitamin tablets are also distributed at cost price—or free to those in need; during 1971 orange juice and cod liver oil are to be replaced by vitamin drops for children and tablets for mothers. The provision by the School Meals Service of school lunches (the cost is remitted in the case of children from poorer families) means that mothers are not obliged to be at home to provide mid-day meals for their children: this service is of special value to working mothers.

Children in Britain must attend school from the age of five, but, before they reach that age, many have been cared for outside the home during the day under a variety of arrangements, a number of which involve mothers in the community care of young children. Some arrangements are designed to allow other mothers to be at work away from the home during parts of the day. In the maintained sector children may enter nursery schools from the age of two, or nursery schools attached to primary schools from the age of three: in January 1970 there were over 140,000 pupils under five receiving informal education in schools in England and Wales—46,000 of them on a part-time basis. More places are needed and, as part of the government's policy of allocating resources to areas of special social need, the provision of an additional 15,000 full-time places has so far been approved. There are also about 31,000 pupils under the age of five in independent schools. Some 440 day nurseries for children of all ages up to five (primarily for those needing care for

special health or social reasons) are provided by local authorities or voluntary associations working with them; others are provided privately and by industrial firms and must be registered with local authorities. People who for payment look after young children in their homes must also be registered if the children are not relatives. On a voluntary basis, many groups of mothers have formed pre-school playgroups for their children—often under the guidance of trained teachers or nurses—which meet several times a week under supervision, with the mothers taking an active part, usually on a rota basis. There are some 12,000 playgroups providing for nearly 220,000 children; many local authorities support playgroups and those doing so in socially deprived areas can obtain financial help from the government. Within the Pre-School Playgroups Association—a voluntary body which receives a government grant—there are some 4,500 playgroups registered with the local authorities and catering for about 120,000 children throughout Britain.

Birth control is generally accepted as an essential part of family welfare in Britain, and under the National Health Service (Family Planning) Act 1967 local authority health departments are empowered to provide a family planning service. Most authorities do this directly or by supporting over 1,000 clinics run by the voluntary Family Planning Association; an increasing number of authorities are developing domiciliary family planning services. Advice is free to married and single women (and men), but contraceptives have to be paid for except where a doctor certifies that pregnancy is medically inadvisable or financial hardship is involved. It is estimated that some 1·6 million women in Britain are taking the contraceptive pill.

Within strictly defined circumstances, treatment for the termination of pregnancy of a girl or woman can be carried out by a qualified doctor—either free under the National Health Service, or for payment in a private nursing home or clinic. Under the Abortion Act 1967, an abortion may be performed if two registered doctors believe, in good faith, that the continuation of a woman's pregnancy would involve a greater risk than its termination in view of the dangers to her life, to the physical or mental health of her or her existing children, or to the physical or mental condition of the unborn child. The operation must take place in a National Health Service hospital or in premises approved by the Secretary of State for Social Services or the Secretary of State for Scotland, unless a termination is immediately necessary. The Act does not apply to Northern Ireland.

Local authorities are required to provide a range of social services to help with problems and difficulties occurring in family life, and are empowered to offer advice and help, including (in exceptional cases) financial help, to families who need it. Professional social workers advise and support families with special problems and bring in other local authority services as necessary. Children can be received into care by the local authority (or, if necessary, committed to its care by court order) if their parents are temporarily or permanently unable to care for or control them, and they are then looked after in residential homes or by foster-parents according to what seems best for them. Family casework is also provided by a number of voluntary agencies. Local authority social service departments provide a service giving domestic help (commonly called 'home help') either directly or through local

voluntary agencies. This service principally helps elderly or housebound families unable to cope with their own housework, and can also help other families during periods of special need—for example, during a woman's confinement or during a mother's absence when her children might otherwise have to be cared for away from the home.

Recuperative homes help families in which the mother is unequal to her everyday tasks because of the pressure of poor health, difficult surroundings, or a large number of children, and cannot overcome her problems without a rest and change. The centres—run by voluntary societies—often have facilities for taking children with their mothers, for involving mothers in the running of the home and its nursery, and for accepting mothers convicted of child neglect and placed on probation. All the centres encourage visits from the fathers and try to win their co-operation in an effort to prevent the possibility of a permanent dissolution of the family. After the mothers have returned to their own homes, the centres arrange as far as they can for a social worker to visit them.

Many of the personal and family problems of women (and of men) stem from matrimonial difficulties. These difficulties are the concern of probation officers who have a statutory duty (in England, Wales and Northern Ireland), when requested by a court, to interview and explore the possibilities of reconciliation between couples applying to the magistrates' courts for separation. (There are also provisions in the divorce legislation which are designed to encourage reconciliation.) In addition, the officers promote the reconciliation of couples who approach them for help before reaching the stage of applying to the courts. Similar work is also done by doctors, lawyers and churchmen; and advice and guidance is given to married couples (and to those expecting to be married) by such voluntary associations as the National Marriage Guidance Council (for England, Wales and Northern Ireland), the Scottish Marriage Guidance Council and the Catholic Marriage Advisory Council (for England and Wales).

There are an estimated 3·2 million widows in Britain, of whom some 633,000 are under 55, and most face many special problems, including the disruption of their personal and social life, the loss of their husbands' earnings and, if there are children in the family, increasing demands on themselves as parents. Social security arrangements (see below) are designed to help every widow to overcome her problems, and the benefits available aim to give special help in the difficult period immediately after her husband's death and then to concentrate financial assistance where it is most needed because of age or family responsibilities. A voluntary organisation—the Cruse Clubs, started in 1959—helps widows in many ways and provides information and advice about the agencies concerned with social security benefits, employment and general problems. The clubs also offer a means through which people offer widows both friendship and practical help.

Because, on average, women live longer than men in Britain, the majority of the elderly population are women. A number of services for elderly people in their own homes are provided by statutory and voluntary bodies to help them live there as long as possible.

All local authority social service departments provide domestic help facilities, and most provide or arrange for the regular provision of a cheap

cooked meal either at home or in a club or centre for those elderly or handicapped people who might not otherwise get one. Other services which may be provided include subsidised transport, night attendants, special laundry facilities (for instance, for the incontinent) as well as day centres, social clubs and recreational workshops. Social workers help and advise old people with their social problems and in many areas 'good neighbour' and similar friendly visiting services on a voluntary basis are arranged by the local authority or a voluntary organisation. Many voluntary bodies organise personal services such as escort services, transport, fire-lighting, help with home decorating or with shopping, and 'meals on wheels'—cooked meals brought to the door. Local authorities provide residential accommodation for elderly or infirm people who would not otherwise get the care and attention they need, other than in hospital, and maintain a register of similar provisions made by voluntary organisations in their area. Health departments provide domiciliary nursing care, health centres and other means of dealing with the health needs of the elderly.

Where relatives care for elderly or disabled people within their own homes, the work and responsibility tends to fall more heavily on women—either housewives who are not working outside the home or on women (very often single women) who stay at home and give up much of their social life in order to care for elderly or infirm relatives. The National Council for the Single Woman and Her Dependants, a voluntary body, estimates that there are nearly 250,000 women in Britain who have given up their prospects of marriage and social life in order to care for elderly relatives. A wide variety of domiciliary health and social services exists to help elderly or infirm people in this position,[1] but the effectiveness of services depends, too, on the readiness of friends and relatives to help the old and disabled person to live in their midst. Social workers do much to advise and encourage those looking after relatives and practical measures have been developed to relieve the strain: these include day hospitals or temporary admissions to residential care in order to give the family a break or a holiday; 'good neighbour services' to enable relatives to go out for a while (for instance, for shopping or recreation); and night help services that send someone to attend to the infirm person and give relatives some temporary relief from broken sleep.

SOCIAL SECURITY

The social security provisions in Britain are designed to ensure a basic minimum standard of life, with earnings-related additions to some benefits. National insurance, family allowances, industrial injuries insurance, war pensions and supplementary benefits constitute a comprehensive system of social security benefits, available to men and women alike.[2]

National Insurance

A scheme of national insurance which applies, in general, to all women (and

[1]These services are described in the COI reference publications, *Care of the Elderly in Britain* (R.5858/69) and *Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain* (R.4972/69).

[2]For more detailed information about social security provisions, see COI reference pamphlet, *Social Security in Britain*, R.5455/70.

men) over the minimum school-leaving age (normally 15 years of age—it is to be raised to 16 in 1972–73) provides benefits in specified circumstances where certain contribution conditions have been fulfilled. Benefits available include regular payments during unemployment, sickness, childbirth and widowhood, and a pension on retirement from regular work which may be increased if retirement is deferred above the minimum age (60 for women); there are also grants payable on the birth of a child and on the death of an insured person or of the husband (or widower), wife (or widow) or child of an insured person.

The benefits are paid for partly by the insured person's contributions, partly by a contribution from his or her employer (if there is one) and partly by a government contribution from taxation revenues. The insured population is divided into three categories: employed people, self-employed people, and non-employed people. Generally speaking, an employed woman's flat-rate contributions entitle her to claim any of the benefits available under the scheme except widow's benefit which is provided solely by a man's contributions; a self-employed woman's contributions entitle her to all the benefits except unemployment and widow's payments; and a non-employed woman's contributions entitle her to claim any benefits except unemployment, sickness and widow's payments and maternity allowances. In all cases, women and girls pay lower flat-rates of contributions than men and boys—men's contributions contain an element towards the cost of allowances for dependent wives and of widows' pensions. The rates paid by men and women are the same, however, in the case of 'graduated contributions'. Under this scheme, graduated contributions, which in general are payable by employed people over the age of 18 who earn more than a specified amount each week, provide a graduated addition to a retirement pension and meet the cost of earnings-related supplements to sickness and unemployment benefit and widows' supplementary allowances.

Under the national insurance scheme, a married woman chooses either to pay the flat-rate contributions herself and to receive benefits in her own right appropriate to her status and insurance class, or not to pay the flat-rate but to rely on her husband's insurance for a more restricted range of benefits—maternity grant, retirement pension (at a lower rate), widow's benefit and death grant. (This choice does not apply to contributions towards the graduated pensions scheme; these must be paid in full.) An employed woman ceases to be liable to pay national insurance contributions at the age of 65 (70 for men) or when she retires from regular employment after reaching the minimum pension age of 60 (65 for men), whichever is the earlier.

Flat-rate benefits are paid at a standard rate for all contributors in similar circumstances: the same full standard rate is payable to men, single women and widows who satisfy the necessary conditions; the rate of sickness and unemployment benefit for a married woman is lower than that for single women and widows (although married women who are separated from their husbands and not maintained by them above a certain level may be entitled to the higher rate as also may be married women maintaining a husband who is incapable of self-support). A married woman relying on her husband's insurance receives a lower pension rate (which she cannot receive before he has qualified for his own pension). A married woman or widow cannot

receive payment of a pension on her husband's insurance in addition to a pension on her own. If she qualifies for two pensions, the pension at the higher weekly rate is paid.

There are two kinds of maternity benefit—a grant and an allowance. A maternity grant is paid for all confinements, provided that either the mother or the husband satisfies the contribution requirements, and a further grant is paid for each additional child born at the same confinement and living 12 hours after birth. A maternity allowance is paid to working women who themselves pay national insurance contributions. It begins eleven weeks before the expected week of confinement and ends six weeks after the expected week, or the actual confinement if this is later. Some 842,500 maternity grants and 235,300 allowances were awarded in Great Britain in 1969.

National insurance provides payments for a person's family as well as for himself when he is sick, unemployed or retired (for payments for a widow's dependants, see below): for example, a husband can claim an increase of benefit for his dependent wife (or a woman who looks after his children); an allowance may be made for a close relative who is dependent upon the claimant and living with him; and a woman may claim for a dependent invalid husband. An increase of benefit is payable for only one adult dependant. A child for whom the person can claim as a dependant must normally be a member of his family and must be under the age limits for family allowances (see below), but allowances can be paid for certain other children for whom he has some financial responsibility.

Women entitled to flat-rate sickness or unemployment benefit may qualify for the earnings-related supplements to flat-rate benefits if their annual income exceeds a specified amount: the size of the supplements is scaled according to average weekly earnings. A widow receiving widow's benefit other than a widow's basic pension may, when she is sick or unemployed, qualify in addition for an earnings-related supplement, even though she is not entitled to flat-rate sickness or unemployment benefit.

Special benefits for widows are designed to help the majority of widows in the difficult period immediately following bereavement, but subsequently to concentrate the payments where they are most needed because of family responsibilities or age, instead of making widowhood the sole criterion. There is an initial widow's allowance (which is set higher than the usual standard weekly rate of the other benefits) lasting for six months from the husband's death, and there is also a supplementary allowance, based on the late husband's earnings, which may be payable for the same period. These allowances may or may not be followed by a widowed mother's allowance or widow's pension, depending on the widow's family circumstances and on her age.

Family Allowances

Family allowances augment the income of families with more than one dependent child so that they are not at too much of a disadvantage compared with smaller families and single people. An allowance is paid for each child other than the first child below the age limits—15 years for children who leave school at that age, 16 years for certain incapacitated children, and 19 years for children who remain at school or are apprentices. The object of the

allowances is to benefit the family as a whole; in law they belong to the mother (unless there are special circumstances such as a permanent separation), but they may be paid to either the mother or the father. The allowances are paid out of general taxation and do not depend on the payment of contributions.

Family Income Supplements

The Family Income Supplements Act 1970 provides a new social security benefit for families with small incomes where the head of the family is in full-time work and there are dependent children. The benefit is to be payable to couples with children and to single people with children, including widowed, divorced, separated and single women and widowers and other men bringing up children unaided while working full-time. In assessing the claims of divorced, separated or single women with children, maintenance payments are to be treated as part of income. Widows with dependent children receive their national insurance widow's benefits whether or not they work, so that, with earnings from full-time work and benefit combined (including family allowances where appropriate), most are expected to have gross incomes above the levels at which the family incomes supplement is payable.

National Insurance (Industrial Injuries)

An industrial injuries scheme provides compensation for personal injuries and for prescribed diseases arising out of employment. It covers almost all employed women and men and certain other people, and is financed from taxation and from contributions (women's are lower than men's). Injury benefit is paid when the accident or disease renders an insured person incapable of work, and includes additional allowances for an adult dependant and for children under the family allowance age limits. Disablement benefit is paid when a loss of physical or mental faculty is suffered (additional allowances are paid in exceptionally severe cases or where the person cannot return to regular employment, or where extensive hospital treatment is necessary). Industrial death benefit takes the form of a pension, gratuity or weekly allowance for a limited period, paid to the dependants of the insured person. A widow receives a pension (at the national insurance widow's allowance rate) for the first 26 weeks of widowhood and additional payments for her children (as well as family allowances). After the period ends, she receives a smaller pension in recognition of her premature loss, the amount varying according to her circumstances: for instance, a young and healthy widow without children receives a lower rate than a widow aged 50 or over or a younger widow who is an invalid. If a widow remarries, her pension ceases, but she receives a remarriage gratuity equal to a year's pension. Provision is made under the scheme for a woman having care of a dead person's children to receive a weekly allowance. By 1969, some 28,000 industrial widow's pensions were being paid in Great Britain.

War Pensions and Related Services

Pensions and allowances are paid to people disabled or bereaved through war or service in the forces since the second world war. Disabled service men and

women receive a basic pension, and men also receive allowances for their wives and children. (There is also a range of supplementary allowances to meet special circumstances.) Pensions are also paid to war widows (and war orphans) with allowances for their children and, in certain cases, an allowance for rent. There is an additional allowance for war widows aged 70 or over: about 109,000 war widows were receiving pensions by the beginning of 1970. The Department of Health and Social Security maintains a war pensioners' welfare service which works in close contact with the many voluntary bodies and ex-service organisations, giving financial aid and personal advice to disabled ex-service men and women and their families.

Supplementary Benefits

Under the supplementary benefits scheme, the Supplementary Benefits Commission must help anyone in Great Britain over the age of 16 who is not in full-time work, attending school or involved in a trade dispute[1] and whose financial resources are insufficient to meet his or her needs as determined in accordance with the Ministry of Social Security Act 1966. The benefit—the amount by which a person's needs exceed his or her resources—takes the form of supplementary pensions for people over the statutory retirement age and supplementary allowances for others. The calculation of needs is based on different scales for single people and family groups with, in each case, an addition for rent. A special addition is made for pensioners and in certain other long-term cases. A person's resources include an assumed income or capital exceeding £300, other social security benefits and—in the case of a woman—maintenance payments from her husband or the father of her children. The commission also has a duty to help people without a settled way of life to lead a more normal life and it provides temporary accommodation for them in reception centres.

TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

Women and girls in Britain are, statistically speaking, more law-abiding than men, and their crimes are rarely of the sort that arouses public alarm. In 1969, some 304,000 people were found guilty of indictable offences[2] at all courts—including juvenile courts—in England and Wales; only 39,600 of them were females. (The total number of people against whom a charge was proved in all Scottish courts—including juvenile courts—was 201,000; only 17,000 of them were females.) By far the most common indictable offences of which females in England and Wales were guilty were those against property without violence (theft and related offences)– 88 per cent (compared with 62 per cent of men's offences). Violent and sexual

[1]But wives and other dependants of people involved in trade disputes may receive benefit if in need.

[2]Broadly speaking, the more serious types of offences.

offences[1] against other people accounted for 2·9 per cent of the female convictions (compared with 9·9 per cent of male convictions).

In general, the same range of penalties applies to females as to males,[2] although (in England and Wales) there are no detention centres for girls. Under the statutory probation and after-care service which forms an integral part of the treatment of male and female offenders alike, girls or women placed on probation are normally assigned to women probation officers (who constitute between a third and a quarter of the probation officers in England and Wales). The service is responsible for compulsory and voluntary after-care for discharged offenders, and in addition a number of voluntary societies (most of which are members of the National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders) provide help and care for discharged women prisoners and for the wives of male prisoners. In Scotland prison welfare officers and members of the probation and after-care service see to the needs of ex-prisoners; and in Northern Ireland the after-care of all prisoners is carried out by members of the probation and after-care service. The Northern Ireland Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders aims to co-ordinate voluntary efforts in the after-care field.

Women in custody are at all times under the supervision of women officers and are detained in separate prisons or other premises—there are nine establishments in England and Wales for women and girls (three of them are units attached to male establishments). The aims of the prison service are the same for women as for men, although the emphasis can in some ways be different: for example, except in the case of a small minority of women prisoners, the element of security is not as important in women's establishments—partly for this reason, too, women and girls in custody may wear their own clothes if they wish. In women's prisons there are facilities for dealing with normal midwifery cases and for ante-natal and post-natal care, but women are allowed (and most choose) to have their confinements in outside hospitals. In the last 30 years, the number of women and girls in custody in England and Wales has been between 800 and 1,000, and at the end of 1970 it stood at just under 1,000—compared with over 37,000 men. After a review of the custodial treatment of women and girls in England and Wales, the government announced a comprehensive policy to provide sufficient facilities for the treatment of the relatively small number involved.

Two groups of custodial establishments—one in the south of the country and one in the north—are being created, each with a closed and an open prison, remand facilities, a closed borstal and psychiatric resources. Most women and girls in custody require some form of medical, psychiatric or remedial treatment, and the site of Holloway in London (the centre of the new southern group) is being developed to provide a medically orientated establishment with a national role.

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[1]Prostitution as such is not an offence against the law in England and Wales: but it is an offence for a woman persistently to loiter or solicit in a public place for the purpose of prostitution; for a woman to exercise control over a prostitute for the purposes of gain; for a man to live on the earnings of prostitution; and for a person of either sex to keep a brothel or procure a woman to become a prostitute. There are no licensed houses, nor is there any police regulation or health control of prostitutes as such.

[2]For fuller details, see COI reference pamphlet, *The Treatment of Offenders in Britain*, R.4414/68.

SPARE-TIME ACTIVITIES

TO A LARGE extent, women in Britain occupy their spare-time in much the same way as men—at home following hobbies, decorating, gardening, reading, entertaining, watching television or listening to the radio or to records; going out to watch or take part in sporting events and social functions, or enjoying the countryside or coastal areas; visiting the cinema, theatre, dance-hall, restaurant or public house; supporting a group activity connected, for example, with the churches, trade unionism, politics, social welfare and reform, or cultural pursuits.

A government social survey published in 1969 into patterns of outdoor and physical recreation (see Reading List, p. 47) obtained information about the way people in England and Wales use their leisure time. The following general points contain some of the survey's main findings about women's free time:

1. Taking the population as a whole, the most popular pastime for women is watching television (as it is for men), followed by craftwork, and hobbies, principally knitting.
2. Depending on the area of the country, outdoor pursuits such as sports and visits to the parks and countryside are the main occupation for between 17 per cent and 20 per cent of the leisure periods available to women.
3. Women of all ages—and particularly young married women without children—take part in social activities more frequently than men.
4. Marriage brings about changes in women's leisure habits—a decline in physical recreation and in visits to the theatre and cinema combined with an increase in craftwork, work about the home (such as decorating) and social activities.
5. Although after marriage there is a marked increase in the amount of time women devote to their hobbies, the time diminishes when they reach middle age and their children have grown up.
6. Membership of clubs and associations (excluding those connected with employment, such as trade unions or professional associations) is lower among women than among men, but more than a third of the women and girls (over 15 years of age) questioned in the survey were members of a club or association.

The following paragraphs deal with certain areas of spare-time activity that are of special interest to women.

Sports and Games

Women engage in most of the sports and games played in Britain—the main exceptions being boxing, wrestling, and rugby football. According to the government social survey, swimming and ballroom dancing are the most popular individual physical activities for women (and for men); the other sports and games in which women participate most regularly include tennis and table-tennis, ten-pin bowls, badminton and squash. Games played predominantly by women include lacrosse and netball; these, together with

tennis, athletics, hockey, swimming, dancing and gymnastics are the ones most usually played at girls' schools.

Generally speaking, matches and competitive events are organised in separate divisions for men and women—many sports have separate governing bodies, for example, the Women's Amateur Athletic Associations and the Ladies' Golf Unions. (A list of organisations promoting sports and games for women and girls is on pp. 45–6.)

Women who have achieved international success recently in their respective sports (some on a professional basis) include: Mrs Ann Jones and Miss Virginia Wade (tennis); Mrs Beryl Burton (cycling); Miss Sheila Scott (flying); Miss Mary Peters and the late Miss Lillian Board (athletics); Mrs Marion Mould and Miss Anneli Drummond-Hay (show jumping).

Women and the Mass Media

There is a great demand among women and girls for 'women's magazines', which cover topics expected to have a special appeal to women—home-making, cooking, health and beauty, fashion, child care and romantic fiction. Four women's magazines are among the seven weekly periodicals with the highest circulation figures in Britain (these are sales figures only and do not represent total readership, which is much higher): *Woman* (2,050,858), *Woman's Weekly* (1,729,826), *Woman's Own* (1,703,331), and *Woman's Realm* (1,022,784). Most daily and Sunday newspapers (as well as many specialised periodicals) include sections intended to appeal particularly to women.

In broadcasting, the counterpart of women's journalism in the Press is 'Woman's Hour', a magazine programme for women broadcast on the radio six days a week and attracting an average audience of some 2½ million listeners daily. Programmes on the radio attract a large audience of women working within their own homes, and some programmes include items designed to appeal particularly to housewives. On weekdays there are regular programmes, both on radio and television, for mothers and their very young children.

Women's Organisations[1]

There are probably several hundred national women's organisations in Britain, with members drawn from every section of the community. Some are concerned with politics, both in Britain and abroad, some with aspects of religion and philosophy; others are devoted to furthering the interests of a particular group, profession or sport. Many organisations have, wholly or in part, feminist aims seeking to achieve a change of status for women in various aspects of life—political, economic, legal, social or moral. A large number of women's organisations are concerned with service to the community—for instance, the welfare of families, the care of children and the elderly, improving conditions in areas of towns and the countryside, setting up new standards in the domestic arts and in handicrafts, and generally stimulating the interest of the ordinary woman in her role in society. For many housewives who do not work outside their homes, women's organisa-

[1]For a classified list of organisations, see pages 40–46.

tions provide an important access to cultural or educational pursuits—in particular, the time of meeting may be more convenient than that of a 'mixed' evening class or a choir or dramatic society rehearsing at a time to suit employed people.

The Women's National Commission (which replaced the Women's Consultative Council) aims to ensure that the informed opinion of women is fully taken into account in the Government's deliberations on matters of public interest. Convened by the Prime Minister, the commission comprises representatives of organisations with large numbers of women members throughout Britain.

Some women's organisations, such as the National Federation of Women's Institutes, the National Union of Townswomen's Guilds, and the Scottish Women's Rural Institutes, are national in scope and have branches in all parts of the country. The branches meet regularly to hear lectures and to hold discussions on topics of general interest, and resolutions are frequently passed by the branches and at national meetings about matters where members' particular knowledge and experience has indicated that reform is both necessary and possible.

The Women's Royal Voluntary Service (founded in 1938) has nearly 2,000 centres throughout Great Britain and provides a voluntary welfare service for members of the community with special needs, including children, the disabled, the elderly and people in hospitals and prisons; the service also works to provide welfare in the event of emergencies.

The Women's Group on Public Welfare (established in 1939) co-ordinates activities and information for its constituent national women's organisations (often in co-operation with central and local authorities). The Women's Group on Public Welfare, Northern Ireland, consisting of representatives of some 32 women's organisations, is concerned with questions of public welfare, especially those affecting women and children.

The National Council of Women of Great Britain also links, nationally and locally, the members of many different organisations concerned with the welfare of women and children. Many professional women, besides belonging to their individual professional organisations, are also among the members of the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs of Great Britain and Northern Ireland or the British Federation of University Women Limited.

In recent years there has been an increase in the number of small feminist organisations (often formed on a local rather than a national basis) which, generally speaking, share a common concern with issues of particular concern to women such as equal pay legislation, abortion law reform and the provision of child care centres.

APPENDIX

A LIST OF SOME WOMEN'S ORGANISATIONS IN BRITAIN[1]

(a) Feminist and General Organisations

Commonwealth Countries' League, 62 Corringham Road, London NW11 7BX.
Fawcett Society, 27 Wilfred Street, London SW1E 6PR.
International Alliance of Women, 42 Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London SW1V 1AE.
International Council of Women, c/o 36 Lower Sloane Street, London SW1W 8BP.
Married Women's Association, 87 Redington Road, London NW3 7RR.
National Advisory Committee, Standing Conference on Women's Organisations, 26 Bedford Square, London WC1B 3HU.
National Association of Women's Clubs, 26 Bedford Square, London WC1B 3HU.
National Council of Women of Great Britain (affiliated to the International Council of Women), 36 Lower Sloane Street, London SW1W 8BP.
National Joint Committee of Working Women's Organisations, Transport House, Smith Square, London SW1P 3HZ.
National Women Citizens' Association, 83 Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London SW1V 1AE.
Scottish Council of Women Citizens' Associations, 30 Castle Street, Edinburgh EH2 3HT, Scotland.
Scottish Trades Union Congress (Women's Advisory Committee), 12 Woodlands Terrace, Glasgow C3, Scotland.
Six Point Group, 45c Belsize Park Gardens, London NW3 4JL.
Status of Women Committee, 19 Hanover Square, London W1R 9DA.
Suffragette Fellowship, 14 St Augustine's Mansions, Bloomburg Street, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London SW1V 2RG.
Trades Union Congress, Women's Advisory Committee, Congress House, 23–28 Great Russell Street, London WC1B 3LS.
Women's Liberation Workshop, 12-13 Little Newport Street, London WC2H 7JJ.
Women's National Commission, Queen Anne's Chambers, 41 Tothill Street, London SW1H 9LQ.
Women Together, 46a Marlborough Park N, Belfast BT9 6HJ, Northern Ireland.

(b) Political Organisations

Conservative Women's National Advisory Committee, 32 Smith Square, London SW1P 3HH.
Co-operative Women's Guild, 348 Gray's Inn Road, London WC1X 8BP.
National Labour Women's Advisory Committee, Transport House, Smith Square, London SW1P 3HZ.
Scottish Co-operative Women's Guild, 95 Morrison Street, Glasgow C5, Scotland.
Women's Liberal Federation, 7 Exchange Court, Strand, London WC2R 0PP.

(c) Professional and Similar Organisations

Advisory Committee on Women's Employment, c/o Department of Employment, 11 Tothill Street, London SW1H 9LN.
Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools, 29 Gordon Square, London WC1H 0PX.

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[1]The classifications used in this section are intended only as a guide: the activities of some organisations fall into several categories. A few of the organisations represent the British headquarters or sections of international bodies.

Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools (Northern Ireland), Collegiate School, Bangor, Co Down, Northern Ireland.

Association of Beauty Therapists, 4 Berkeley Mews, London W1H 7PB.

Association of British Paediatric Nurses, c/o Miss E. Kilpatrick, Queen Elizabeth Hospital for Children, Banstead Wood, Surrey.

Association of Head Mistresses, 29 Gordon Square, London WC1H 0PU.

Association of Headmistresses of Preparatory Schools, Meadowbrook, Virginia Water, Surrey.

Association of Heads of Girls' Boarding Schools, c/o St Swithun's School, Winchester, Hants.

Association of Home Economists of Great Britain, 307 Uxbridge Road, London W3 9QU.

Association of Hospital Matrons, 17 Portland Place, London W1N 3AF.

Association of London Model Agencies, 66 New Bond Street, London W1Y 9DF.

Association of Occupational Therapists, 251 Brompton Road, London SW3 2HA.

Association of Principals of Women's Colleges of Physical Education, 37 Lansdowne Road, Bedford.

Association of Scottish Hospital Matrons, c/o Miss A. I. C. Bone, Ayr County and Heathfield Hospitals, Heathfield, Ayr, Scotland.

Association of Teachers of Domestic Science, Hamilton House, Mapledon Place, London WC1H 9BJ.

Association of Women Launderers, Rookley Cottage, Niton, Isle of Wight.

Association of WRNS, 2 Lower Sloane Street, London SW1W 8BN.

British Association of Social Workers, 42 Bedford Square, London WC1B 3DP.

British Association of Women Executives, 27 Derrick Road, Beckenham, Kent BR3 3QG.

British Federation of University Women Ltd., Crosby Hall, Cheyne Walk, London SW3.

British Nursing Association, 36 Molyneux Street, London W1H 6AQ.

Central Midwives' Board, 39 Harrington Gardens, London SW7 4JY.

Central Midwives' Board for Scotland, 24 Dublin Street, Edinburgh EH1 3PU, Scotland.

Farm Women's Club, c/o *Farmers Weekly*, 161 Fleet Street, London EC4P 4AA.

Federation of Soroptomist Clubs of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 63 Bayswater Road, London W2 3PJ.

Freelance Work for Women, 91 Parkway, London NW1 7PP.

General Nursing Council for England and Wales, 23 Portland Place, London W1A 1BA.

General Nursing Council for Scotland, 3–5 Darnaway Street, Edinburgh EH3 6DP, Scotland.

Girls' Nautical Training Corps, Broadway House, Broadway, London SW19 1RL.

Health Visitors' Association, 36 Eccleston Square, London SW1V 1PF.

Institute of Home Help Organisers, 1 King Edward Road, Maidstone, Kent.

Institutional Management Association, 324 Gray's Inn Road, London WC1X 8DB.

International Federation of Business and Professional Women, 37–38 Chancery Lane, London WC2A 1EL.

Joint Nursing and Midwives Council for Northern Ireland, 5 Annadale Avenue, Belfast BT7 3JH, Northern Ireland.

Medical Women's Federation, Tavistock House North, Tavistock Square, London WC1H 9HR.

National Advisory Centre on Careers for Women, 251 Brompton Road, London SW3.

National Association of State Enrolled Nurses, 1 Vere Street, London W1M 9HQ.

National Association of Theatre Nurses, c/o Main Operating Theatre, General Infirmary, Leeds.

National Association of Women Pharmacists, c/o 7 Inglewood, Kemnal Road, Chislehurst, Kent BR7 6NF.

National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 54 Bloomsbury Street, London WC1B 3QU.

Northern Ireland Women Teachers' Association, 5a Downview Park, Belfast BT15 5HY, Northern Ireland.

Open Door Council, 43 Seymour Road, London SW19 5JL.

Queen's Institute of District Nursing, 57 Lower Belgrave Street, London SW1.

Royal British Nurses Association, 194 Queen's Gate, London SW7 5EY.

Royal College of Midwives, 15 Mansfield Street, London W1M 0BE.

Royal College of Nursing and National Council of Nurses of the United Kingdom, 1a Henrietta Place, London W1M 0AB.

Scottish Association of Senior Hospital Nursing Officers, Ayr County & Heathfield Hospitals, Holmston Road, Ayr, Scotland.

Scottish Health Visitors' Association, 19 Second Avenue, Lenzie, Kirkintilloch, Scotland.

Scottish Nursery Nurses Examination Board, 38 Queen Street, Glasgow C1, Scotland.

Scottish Nursing Staffs Committee, Woodburn House, Canaan Lane, Edinburgh EH10 4SG, Scotland.

Scottish Society of Women Artists, 108 Hanover Street, Edinburgh EH2 1DR, Scotland.

Society for Promoting the Training of Women, Court Farm, Hedgerley, Buckinghamshire.

Society of Women Musicians Inc, 45 Wolseley Road, London N8 8RS.

Society of Women Writers and Journalists, Royal Scottish Corporation Hall, Fleur-de-Lis Court, Fetter Lane, London EC4.

Student Nurses' Association, 1 Vere Street, London W1M 0DE.

Ulster Headmistresses' Association, Bloomfield Collegiate School, Astoria Gardens, Belfast BT5 6HW, Northern Ireland.

Union of Women Teachers, 37 St Stephyn's Chambers, Bank Court, Hemel Hempstead, Hertfordshire.

United Kingdom Federation for Education in Home Economics, 36 Ravenscroft Avenue, London NW11 8AU.

Women Public Health Officers' Association, 36 Eccleston Square, London SW1V 1PF.

Women's Advertising Club of London, c/o Mrs V. Champion, 9 Telford Terrace, London SW1V 3AE.

Women's Engineering Society, 25 Foubert's Place, London W1V 2AL.

Women's Farm and Garden Association, Courtauld House, Byng Place, London WC1E 7JH.

Women's Press Club of London Ltd, 6–7 Great Newport Street, London WC2H 7JD.

(d) Social, Philanthropic and Other Organisations

Accommodation and Advisory Service for Girls, 16 Great Russell Street, London WC1B 3LP.

Associated Country Women of the World, 17 Old Court Place, London W8 4PR.

Association for Improvements in the Maternity Services, 1 Batchwood Gardens, St Albans, Hertfordshire.

Association of Inner Wheel Clubs in Great Britain and Ireland, Berners Hotel, Berners Street, London W1A 3BE.

British Housewives' League Ltd, 2 Stepney Green, London E1 3JU.
Cruse Organisation for Widowed Families, The Charter House, Lion Gate Gardens, Richmond, Surrey.
Electrical Association for Women, 25 Foubert's Place, London W1V 2AL.
Federation of Women's Institutes of Northern Ireland, War Memorial Building, 9–13 Waring Street, Belfast BT1 2ET, Northern Ireland.
Girl Guides Association, 17 Buckingham Palace Road, London SW1W 0PT.
Girls' Brigade, Brigade House, Parsons Green, London SW6.
Girls' Venture Corps, 33 St George's Drive, London SW1V 4DH.
Guild of Lady Drivers, 413a Brixton Road, London SW9 7DG.
Housewives' League, 34 Parkmount Road, Belfast 15, Northern Ireland.
Housewives' Trust, 4 The Broadway, London N8 9SS.
International Federation of University Women, 17a King's Road, London SW3 4RS
Josephine Butler Society, 49 Hawshead Road, North Mymms, Hatfield, Hertfordshire.
London Council for Welfare of Women and Girls, 16 Great Russell Street, London WC1B 3LP.
Mothers in Action, c/o Miss B. Ford, 25 Milton Road, London N6 5QD.
National Association for Maternal and Child Welfare, Tavistock House North, Tavistock Square, London WC1H 9JG.
National Council for the Single Woman and Her Dependants, 166 Victoria Street, London SW1E 5LB.
National Council for the Unmarried Mother and Her Child, 255 Kentish Town Road, London NW5 2LX.
National Federation of Women's Institutes, 39 Eccleston Street, London SW1W 9NT.
National Union of Townswomen's Guilds, 2 Cromwell Place, London SW7 2JG *and* 15 Castlehill Drive, Belfast BT4 3GS, Northern Ireland.
Over Forty Association for Women Workers, 35–37 Grosvenor Gardens, London SW1.
Pre-School Playgroups Association, 87a Borough High Street, London SE1 1NH.
Royal British Legion Women's Section, 48–49 Pall Mall, London SW1Y 5JY.
Royal Scottish Society for the Self-Aid of Gentlewomen, 33 Woodhall Road, Edinburgh EH13 0DT, Scotland.
Scottish Association for Improvements in the Maternity Services, 1 Queen's Bay Crescent, Edinburgh EH15 2NA, Scotland.
Scottish Council for the Unmarried Mother and Her Child, 44 Albany Street, Edinburgh EH1 3QR, Scotland.
Scottish Girls' Training Corps, 53 George Street, Edinburgh EH2 2HT, Scotland.
Scottish Housewives' Association, Sandyfords, Kirrie Muir, Angus, Scotland.
Scottish Women's Advisory Council on Solid Fuel, 1 Royal Exchange Square, Glasgow C1, Scotland.
Scottish Women's Rural Institutes, 42 Heriot Row, Edinburgh EH3 6EU, Scotland.
Trefoil Guild, 46 Belgrave Square, London SW1X 8QU.
University Women's Club, 2 Audley Square, London W1Y 6DB.
Women Drivers Association Ltd, Ewhurst Place, Ewhurst, Surrey.
Women's Advisory Council on Solid Fuel, 18 South Moulton Street, London W1Y 2LY.
Women's Corona Society, Wellington House, Buckingham Gate, London SW1E 6BG.
Women's Council, 35 St Peter's Square, London W6 9NW.
Women's Gas Federation and Young Homemakers, 29 Great Peter Street, London, SW1.
Women's Group on Public Welfare, 26 Bedford Square, London WC1B 3HU.

Women's Group on Public Welfare, Northern Ireland, 28 Bedford Street, Belfast BT2 7FC, Northern Ireland.
Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, 29 Great James Street, London WC1N 3ES.
Women's National Cancer Control Campaign, 9 Hop Gardens, London WC2N 4EH.
Women's Pioneer Housing Ltd, 83a Buckingham Palace Road, London SW1W 0QW.
Women's Royal Voluntary Service, 17 Old Park Lane, London W1V 4AJ.
Women's Wine Club, 37 New Bond Street, London W1Y 9HB.

(e) Religious Organisations

Anglican Group for the Ordination of Women to the Historic Ministry of the Church, 29 Thurloe Court, Fulham Road, London SW3 6SB.
British Women's Temperance Association, Scottish Christian Union, 8 North Bank Street, Edinburgh 1, Scotland.
Catholic Women's League, 65 Victoria Street, London SW1H 0HW.
Christian Alliance of Women and Girls, 157 Waterloo Road, London SE1.
Church of Scotland Women's Committee on Social Service, Temperance and Moral Welfare, 121 George Street, Edinburgh EH2 4YN, Scotland.
Church of Scotland Women's Guild, 121 George Street, Edinburgh EH2 4YN, Scotland.
Congregational Churches of Scotland, Women's Union, 46 Cranworth Street, Glasgow W2, Scotland.
Council for Women's Ministry in the Church, Church House, Dean's Yard, London SW1.
Federation of Women Zionists of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (the British branch of the Women's International Zionist Organisation), 105/107 Gloucester Place, London W1H 4BY.
Girls' Friendly Society, Townsend House, Greycoat Place, London SW1P 1BN.
League of Jewish Women, Woburn House, Upper Woburn Place, London WC1H 0EP.
Mothers' Union, 24 Tufton Street, London SW1P 3RB.
National Board of Catholic Women, c/o Mrs J. Robins, 37 Brunswick Gardens, London W8 4AW.
National British Women's Total Abstinence Union Inc, 23 Dawson Place, London W2 4TJ.
National Free Church Women's Council, 27 Tavistock Square, London WC1H 9HG.
St Joan's Alliance, 15 Carlisle Street, London W1V 5RE.
Scottish Girls' Friendly Society, 19 Rutland Square, Edinburgh EH1 2BL, Scotland.
Scottish Mothers' Union (Interdenominational), 8 Cumin Place, Edinburgh EH9 2JX, Scotland.
Society for the Ministry of Women in the Church (Interdenominational), 93 Hatherley Grove, Hatherley Court, London W2 5RF.
Toc H Incorporated, 15 Trinity Square, London EC3N 4BS.
Union of Catholic Mothers, c/o Mrs D. W. Townsend, 47 Oakdene Drive, Tolworth, Surbiton, Surrey.
Union of Jewish Women, Woburn House, Upper Woburn Place, London WC1H 0EP.
Women's Association of the Presbyterian Church in Ireland, Church House, Fisherwick Place, Belfast BT1 6DX, Northern Ireland.
Women's Auxiliary to the Baptist Union of Scotland, 113 West Regent Street, Glasgow C2, Scotland.

Women's Fellowship of the Methodist Church, 22a Christchurch Road, London SW2 3EZ.
Women's General Committee of the Overseas Council, 121 George Street, Edinburgh EH2 4YN, Scotland.
Women's Protestant Union, Clive Court, Ashdown Avenue, Saltdean, Brighton, Sussex BN2 8AH.
Women's Union of the Congregational Churches of Scotland, 217 West George Street, Glasgow C2, Scotland.
Young Women's Christian Association of Great Britain, 2 Weymouth Street, London W1N 4AX.
Young Women's Christian Association of Northern Ireland, 3 Malone Road, Belfast BT9 6RT, Northern Ireland.
Young Women's Christian Association of Scotland, 6–8 Inverleith Terrace, Edinburgh EH3 5NT, Scotland.

(f) Sports, Games and Similar Organisations

All England Netball Association, 26 Park Crescent, London W1N 4ER.
All England Women's Hockey Association, 45 Doughty Street, London WC1N 2LW.
All England Women's Lacrosse Association, 26 Park Crescent, London W1N 4EX.
All Wales Ladies' Lacrosse Association, 51 St Nicholas Road, Barry, Glamorgan CF6 8QX, Wales.
British Women Pilots' Association, British Light Aviation Centre, 75 Victoria Street, London SW1H 0JD.
English Ladies' Golf Association, Flat 2, 28 Shepherd's Hill, London N6 5AH.
Girls' Schools Lawn Tennis Association, Cobblers, East Shalford Lane, Guildford, Surrey.
Keep Fit Association of England, 120 Bishopsgate, London EC2M 4HL.
Keep Fit Association of Northern Ireland, 23 Agnes Street, Belfast BT13 1GF, Northern Ireland.
Ladies' Golf Union, 2 Fairways, Sandwich Bay, Kent.
Ladies' Amateur Fencing Union, 99 Hazon Way, Epsom, Surrey.
Medau Society of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, 220 Balham High Road, London SW12 9BS.
National Rounders Association, 1 Chantry Close, Beeston, Nottingham N99 5DJ.
Northern Ireland Women's Amateur Athletic Association, 15 Cherryvalley Gardens, Belfast BT5 6PQ, Northern Ireland.
Scottish Ladies' Golfing Association, 23 Thornly Park Avenue, Paisley, Scotland.
Scottish Ladies' Lacrosse Association, 29 Lygon Road, Edinburgh EH16 5QD, Scotland.
Scottish League for Physical Education (Women), 12 Palmerston Road, Edinburgh EH9 1TN, Scotland.
Scottish Netball Association, 204 King's Park Avenue, Glasgow S4, Scotland.
Scottish Schoolgirls' Athletic Association, 28 Culduchel Road, Inverness, Scotland.
Scottish Women's Amateur Athletic Association, 4 Queensferry Street, Edinburgh EH2 2PA, Scotland.
Scottish Women's Bowling Association, 18 Kirkintilloch Road, Bishopsbriggs, Glasgow, Scotland.
Scottish Women's Cross Country Union, 74 Kenmere Gardens, Bishopsbriggs, Glasgow, Scotland.
Scottish Women's Hockey Association, 12 Palmerston Road, Edinburgh EH9 1TN, Scotland.
Scottish Women's Keep Fit Association, 115 Buccleuch Street, Glasgow C3, Scotland.

Ulster Women's Hockey Union, 36 Ardenlee Avenue, Belfast BT6 0AA, Northern Ireland.
Veteran Ladies' Golf Association, 14 Devonshire House, Devonshire Avenue, Sutton, Surrey.
Welsh Ladies' Golf Association, 5 Holmewood Terrace, Cyncoed, Cardiff CF2 6BT, Wales.
Welsh Netball Association, Brentwood, Gwerthonor Road, Bargoed, Glamorgan CF8 8JR, Wales.
Welsh Women's Hockey Association, 107 Monthermer Road, Cardiff CF2 4QY, Wales.
Women's Amateur Athletic Association, 41 Hayward Court, Studley Estate, London SW4 6QW.
Women's Amateur Rowing Council, 20 Wensleydale Road, Hampton, Middlesex.
Women's Cricket Association, 12 Wake Green Road, Birmingham B13 9EZ.
Women's Football Association, 95 College Road, Deal, Kent.
Women's Inter-University Athletic Board, 12 Crescent Road, Sidcup, Kent.
Women's League of Health and Beauty, 4 Bucklersbury, London EC4 8AX, *and* Beaumont Cottage, Ditton Close, Thames Ditton, Surrey.
Women's Squash Rackets Association, 4 Denbigh Gardens, Richmond, Surrey.
Women's Tricycle Association, 92 Graham Gardens, Luton, Bedfordshire.

SHORT READING LIST

			£
BROMLEY, P. M. Family Law (including 1970 supplement).	*Butterworth*	1966	3·60
BROOKES, PAMELA. Women at Westminster.	*Peter Davies*	1967	2·50
BROOKS, D. C. The Emancipation of Women.	*Macmillan*	1970	0·35
CHURCH OF ENGLAND. Women in Ministry: a study.	*Church of England Information Office*	1968	0·25
CONSERVATIVE CENTRAL OFFICE. Women in Politics.	*CCO*	1971	0·05
CONSERVATIVE POLITICAL CENTRE. Opportunity for Women.	*CPC*	1969	0·12½
——— Fair Share for the Fair Sex.	*CPC*	1969	0·22½
——— Unhappy Families.	*CPC*	1971	0·25
FOGARTY, M., RAPOPORT, RHONA, *and* RAPOPORT, ROBERT. Sex, Career and Family.	*Allen & Unwin*	1971	5·75
GOVERNMENT SOCIAL SURVEY. Planning for Leisure.	*HMSO*	1969	1·75
——— Survey of Women's Employment. *Vol. 1.*	*HMSO*	1968	1·62½
(Tables) *Vol. 2.*	*HMSO*	1968	3·00
GRANT, *Judge* H. B. Family Law.	*Sweet & Maxwell*	1970	2·00
KAMM, JOSEPHINE. Rapiers and Battleaxes: the Women's Movement and its Aftermath.	*Allen & Unwin*	1966	1·87½
KLEIN, VIOLA. Britain's Married Women Workers.	*Routledge*	1965	1·40
LABOUR PARTY. Towards Equality: Women and Social Security.	*Labour Party*	1969	0·07½
O'NEILL, WILLIAM L. The Woman Movement—Feminism in the United States and England.	*Allen & Unwin*	1969	2·50
PINDER, PAULINE. Women at Work.	*Political & Economic Planning*	1969	0·50
RENDEL, MARGHERITA. Equality for Women.	*Fabian Society*	1968	0·25
STENTON, DORIS M. The English Woman in History.	*Allen & Unwin*	1957	2·50
WALTERS, PATRICIA, ALLEN, A. J., *and* ALLEN, I. Women and Top Jobs.	*Allen & Unwin*	1971	3·75
WHITE, CYNTHIA L. Women's Magazines 1693–1968.	*Michael Joseph*	1970	3·25

COI BIOGRAPHIES[1]

Royal Family

HM The Queen	May	1971
HRH Princess Anne	May	1971
HM Queen Elizabeth the Queen Mother	January	1968
HRH Princess Margaret	March	1969
HRH The Duchess of Kent	July	1969
HRH The Duchess of Gloucester	July	1966
HRH Princess Alexandra	August	1970

General List

Ashcroft, Dame Peggy	Theatre	September	1968
Beriosova, Svetlana	Ballet	October	1968
Bowen, Elizabeth	Literature	November	1970
Byatt, A. S. and Drabble, Margaret	Literature	March	1968
Castle, Barbara	Member of Parliament and former minister	September	1970
Christie, Dame Agatha	Writer of detective novels	October	1970
Churchill, Lady (See Spencer-Churchill, Baroness)			
Delaney, Shelagh	Theatre	February	1968
Drabble, Margaret. See Byatt, A. S.			
Drew, Jane	Architecture	January	1968
Du Pre, Jacqueline	Music	September	1969
Elliot, Baroness	Life Peeress: youth work and social work	September	1969
Evans, Dame Edith	Theatre	September	1969
Fonteyn, Dame Margot	Ballet	July	1968
Gaitskell, Baroness	Life Peeress: widow of Hugh Gaitskell	March	1970
Gipps, Dr Ruth	Music	November	1969
Glyn, Caroline	Literature	February	1968
Grey, Beryl	Ballet	May	1968

[1]Free overseas. For other, less recent biographies, see COI list *Women in the Biography Service.*

Hampshire, Susan	Theatre	January	1969
Hepworth, Dame Barbara	Sculpture	July	1969
Hodgkin, Professor Dorothy	Science	January	1971
Jefford, Barbara	Theatre	July	1968
Lessing, Doris	Literature	February	1969
Lonsdale, Dame Kathleen	Science	April	1969
Lutyens, Elisabeth	Music	July	1970
Maconchy, Elizabeth	Music	November	1970
Markova, Dame Alicia	Ballet	July	1969
Masham, Baroness	Life Peeress: social service for the handicapped	March	1970
Murdoch, Iris	Literature	July	1971
Musgrave, Thea	Music	January	1970
Park, Merle	Ballet	January	1969
Perham, Dame Margery	Commonwealth studies	September	1970
Plowright, Joan	Theatre	July	1969
Porter, Nyree Dawn	Theatre	January	1969
Quant, Mary	Fashion	November	1970
Redgrave, Lynn	Theatre	May	1968
Redgrave, Vanessa	Theatre	February	1968
Riley, Bridget	Painting	July	1971
Robson, Dame Flora	Theatre	February	1970
Scott, Sheila	Aviation	January	1968
Sharp, Baroness	Life Peeress: Civil Service (retired)	March	1969
Sibley, Antoinette	Ballet	October	1970
Smithson, Alison	Architecture	October	1970
Spencer-Churchill, Baroness (formerly Lady Churchill)	Life Peeress: widow of Sir Winston Churchill	August	1968
Summerskill, Baroness	Life Peeress: former minister	December	1970
Sutherland, Joan	Music	April	1968
Tate, Phyllis	Music	March	1970
Thatcher, Margaret	Member of Parliament and minister	June	1970
Thorndike, Dame Sybil	Theatre	November	1969

TWEEDSMUIR, Baroness	Life Peeress and minister	July	1970
VAUGHAN, Dame Janet	Medicine: Principal of Somerville College till 1967	January	1968
WARD, Barbara	Economist and author	March	1970
WEDGWOOD, C. V. (Dame Veronica)	Historian	May	1970
WILLIAMS, Shirley	Member of Parliament and former minister	August	1970
WOOTTON, Baroness	Life Peeress: economist	August	1969

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OTHER REFERENCE PAMPHLETS IN THIS SERIES

BRITAIN AND ITS PEOPLE		
The British Press*	R. 5572/70	Sept. 1970
Sound and Television Broadcasting in Britain*	R. 5531/69	Feb. 1969
REGIONS AND PLACES		
Regional Development in Britain*†	R. 5804/67	Nov. 1967
GOVERNMENT AND ADMINISTRATION		
The Monarchy in Britain	R. 5526/68	Sept. 1968
The Central Government of Britain*	R. 5564/71	May 1971
The British Parliament*	R. 5448/71	May 1971
The British Civil Service	R. 5599/71	Jan. 1971
Local Government in Britain*†	R. 5505/68	Jan. 1968
The English Legal System*†	R. 5312/68	Nov. 1968
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The Police Service in Britain*	R. 5598/69	Apr. 1969
SOCIAL SERVICES		
Social Services in Britain*	R. 5595/69	Feb. 1969
Social Security in Britain*	R. 5455/70	Jan. 1970
Health Services in Britain*†	R. 5154/68	May 1968
Rehabilitation and Care of the Disabled in Britain†	R. 4972/69	Aug. 1969
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